

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 203 525

EA 013 717

AUTHOR Bergsma, Harold: And Others
TITLE Man Over Methods: Images of Educational Leadership.
INSTITUTION New Mexico State Univ., Las Cruces. Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction.
PUB DATE 81
NOTE 95p.: Some pages may not reproduce clearly.
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Educational Change; Educational Technology; Elementary Secondary Education; Futures (of Society); Higher Education; Instructional Development; *Instructional Improvement; *Leadership Qualities; *Leadership Responsibility; *Leadership Styles; Legal Problems; Models; Research Utilization; *Student Developed Materials; Supervision
IDENTIFIERS *Educational Leadership

ABSTRACT

Papers written by education graduate students for a class on instructional leadership are organized into four chapters. Chapter 1, "History of the Nature of Leadership: 1900-1981," examines the nature of leadership in education according to major historical events and their effects on educational supervision. Chapter 2, "Dynamic Instructional Leadership: Which Style for the Craftsman?" defines autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic leadership philosophies and reviews current literature concerning the present status of leadership styles in education. Chapter 3, "Who and Where: Factors in Leadership Models," discusses personality-based theories of leadership in elementary school settings. The special situations in higher education that delimit the role of the academic officer are also considered. Finally, steps to follow in the development of a personal leadership model are outlined. Chapter 4, "Critical Issues in Leadership Choice," discusses four factors that surround choices made by instructional leaders and that affect professional behavior: legal decisions, social expectations, technology, and professional development. (Author/MLF)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

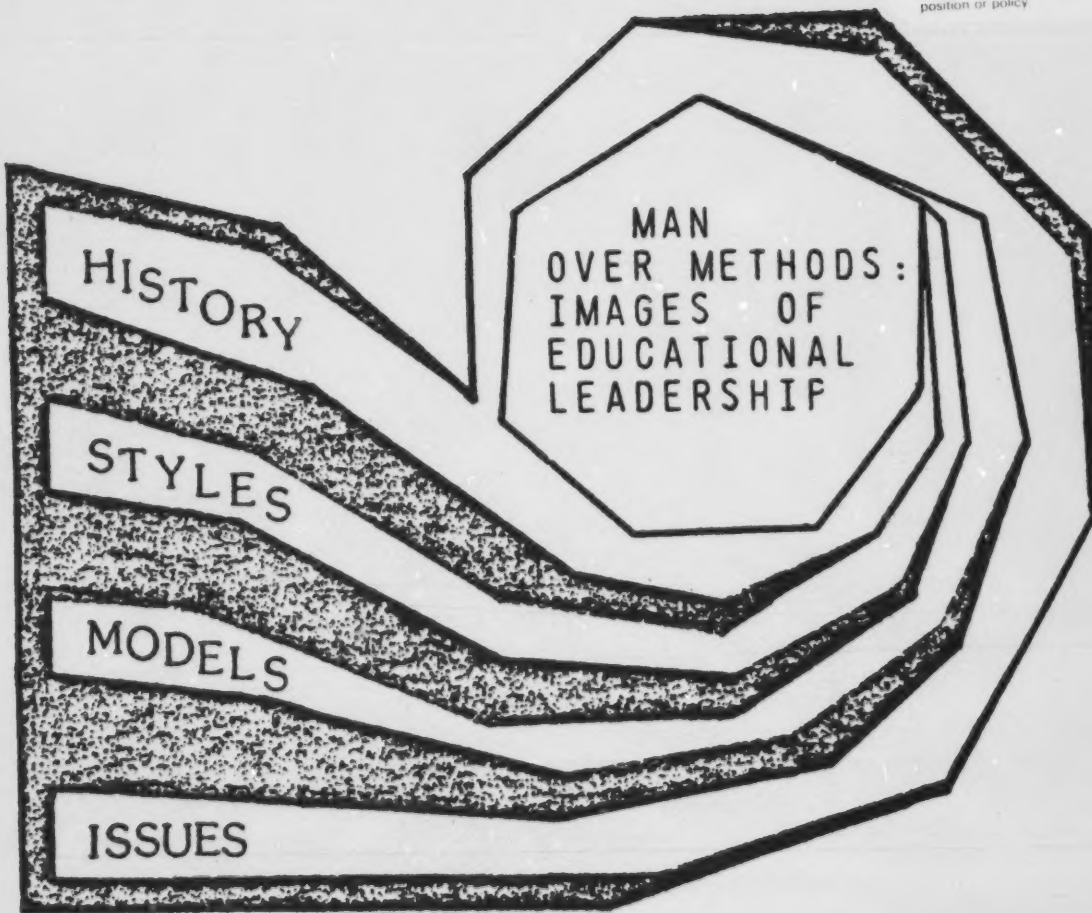
ED203525



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

✓ This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve
reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this docu-
ment do not necessarily represent official NIE
position or policy.



EA 013 747

Department of Curriculum & Instruction
1981

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

H. M. Bergsma

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Harold M. Bergsma, B.A., M.A., Ph.D., is a Professor of Curriculum and Instruction and is currently head of the Department of Curriculum at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Karen Carter, B.S.N., M.S.N., is an instructor of Nursing at the University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, Texas. She is currently a doctoral student in Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Judy M. Dacus, B.S., M.S., is a graduate assistant for the Center for Educational Development and Evaluation at New Mexico State University. She is currently a doctoral candidate in Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Jeff C. Goodman, B.S., M.A., is the Coordinator of the Trades and Industry Programs at the Dona Ana Branch of New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico. He is currently a doctoral student in Educational Management and Development at New Mexico State University.

Sandra Dee Kelley, B.S., M.A., is a graduate assistant for Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico. She is currently a doctoral candidate in Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University.

Thomas Kline, B.S., M.A., is a graduate assistant for the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico. He is currently a doctoral student in Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University.

Alice Onsurez, B.A., M.A., is a graduate assistant for Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico. She is currently a doctoral candidate for Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University.

Marydelle Polk, B.S.N., M.S., is an assistant professor of Nursing at the University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, Texas. She is currently a doctoral student in Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Marily L. Steffel, B.S.N., M.S., is currently a part-time student in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Threresa Mary Valdez, B.S., M.S. is currently a teacher of Home Economics at Las Cruces High School, Las Cruces, New Mexico. She is also a student in Curriculum and Instruction at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Special Acknowledgement: Donna Comer, New Mexico State University Crimson Scholar, was a great help in preparing the text.

PREFACE:
A MODEL PROGRAM IN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

One of the common complaints of many doctoral students in institutions where I have worked is that they seldom work on significant writing projects related precisely to their areas of study which result in publishable or published products. This concern dovetails with a personal instructional goal I have held as a teacher and professor, that is, getting students to write and write well and learn how difficult it is to tailor a product to the point that it becomes acceptable for publication.

During the Spring of 1981, the doctoral class Education 623, Instructional Leadership, which I taught became an excellent vehicle for an experiment in which students would attend class and lectures and participate in class seminars, but also work on a chapter of a book; that is research the literature, conceptualize the material, develop a point of view, write, work with peer editors and become peer editors of other's works, and work on committees which decide on the product's format, including title, cover, relatedness of material to other sections, table of contents, and the like.

The course objectives set by the professor were:

1. To help participants become familiar with the research and writing dealing with:
 - A. The changing nature of Educational Leadership
 - B. Leadership styles
 - C. Development of theoretical models related to leadership/supervision.
 - D. Critical issues in leadership in various instructional sections.
2. To give participants an opportunity to inquire, in depth, in one area of leadership and instructional theory and to exhibit and practice leadership behavior in group and classroom settings.
3. To encourage participants to perfect communication skills in leadership through the development of written materials, presentations, cross-editorships, and in the compiling of reference sources.
4. To be involved directly in the generation of a personal supervision theory, related to the specific discipline of the student.

5. To practice observational and evaluative leadership skills within a university or school classroom setting, and report such to class.

The backgrounds of the ten class members added immeasurably to the contribution made. Represented were a practicing vocational educator in higher education, assistant professors of nursing, an ex-Army nurse, a retired Air Force nurse and instructor, secondary school teachers (Math, English, Home Ec.), elementary school teachers and in the case of the majority, university graduate assistants.

We divided into four work groups: History of the Changing Nature of Leadership 1900-1981, Current Research on Leadership Styles, The Development of Models in Leadership Based on Research of Leadership Styles, and finally, Emerging Critical Issues in Leadership and Supervision.

People in the class taught, learned, researched, wrote, edited, advised, worked in groups, worked alone, reported, performed evaluations of each other, their instructor and other professors, performed micro-teaching, wrote, edited...

Finally, after weeks of work, each person presented his/her section orally to the class and in written semi-final form.

The stage was set for the big product - the putting together of all of the work under one cover in a unified fashion.

The product, Man Over Methods: Images of Educational Leadership, is a compilation of 'firsts' for most, their first publication, their first editorship - their first co-authored work. The experiment is worth replicating in other classes and climates - but a word of caution for instructors who decide to try this learning format. It involves close, sometimes frustrating sessions with individuals, it involves much more than the class time designated, and it requires the development of a class zeal for the task to be done.

Pizza and drinks were shared by all in celebration of the product. Each went away with five copies, smiles, and promises to collaborate again.

Harold Bergsma
"Project" Director
Educ. 623, Instructional Leadership
New Mexico State University
May, 1981

Table of Contents

	Page
ABOUT THE AUTHORS	1
PREFACE	iii
CHAPTER ONE. History of the Nature of Leadership: 1900-1981	1
A. The Nature of Leadership From 1865 to 1920	4
B. The Nature of Leadership From 1920 to 1950	9
C. The Nature of Leadership From 1950 to 1981	14
CHAPTER TWO. Dynamic Instructional Leadership: Which Style for the Craftsman?	21
A. Authoritarian Leadership	25
B. Laissez Faire (Free-Rein) Leadership	30
C. Democratic Leadership	34
CHAPTER THREE. Who and Where: Factors in Leadership Models	42
A. Developing a Model for Educational Leadership	45
B. The Role of the University Executive Vice-President in Instructional Development	54
C. The Elementary School Principal and Leadership	59
CHAPTER FOUR. Critical Issues in Leadership Choices	68
A. The Issues of Technology and Legal Decisions	70
B. Changing Expectations and Re-education of Professionals	76
INDEX	84

**THE HISTORY OF THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP:
1900 - 1981**

**Marilyn Steffel
Theresa Valdez**

History of the Nature
of Leadership: 1900-1981

Abstract

Understanding the nature of leadership in education today requires knowledge of the way in which leadership in the profession evolved. History shows an inter-relationship between socio-economic and political forces and the development of the distinguishing characteristics of leadership.

Chapter I

THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP: ITS HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

There is no universally accepted definition of leadership. Even the dictionary is vague. Webster defines leadership as "the office or position of a leader...the quality of a leader...capacity to lead...the act or an instance of leading." To a very large extent, an individual's conception of leadership is culturally determined. Since ancient times people have tried to define what a leader is and what the nature of leadership is. However, there are almost as many definitions of the concept as there are people who define it. Although all of the definitions and theories of leadership attempt to provide some insight and understanding of the nature of leadership, it seems to be an elusive quality. Ralph Stogdill (1974) found that "the patterns of behavior regarded as acceptable in leaders differ from time to time from one culture to another" (p. 82).

Nature is defined by Webster as a "normal and characteristic quality, strength, vigor, or resiliency; the essential character or constitution of something; the essence or ultimate form of something; the distinguishing qualities or properties of something." Understanding the nature of leadership in education today requires knowledge of the way in which leadership in the profession evolved. History shows an interrelation between socio-economic and political forces and the development of the distinguishing characteristics of leadership.

The nature of the leadership role is determined by the goal of the group. Through the years the goal of educational leadership has been consistently directed toward the improvement of instruction. Although the end has remained basically the same, the means for achieving this goal have changed. Most of this change has revolved around the evolution of the definition of the term "leadership."

The Nature of Leadership
From 1865 to 1920

Theresa M. Valdez

Understanding the historical development aspects of leadership styles and the relationship of these to socio-historical events is indispensable for evaluating plans for our present and future educational system. An historical analysis of the nature of leadership shows relationships between socio-economic and political forces which affected the characteristics of leadership during 1865-1920.

Important historical events affecting the nature of leadership were the post Civil War period, the 1900 industrialization period, World War I, the post World War I period, and the emergence of the United States as one of the strongest and most influential nations, militarily and commercially.

The historical relationships of the nature of leadership in education will be chronologically discussed according to major historical events and their effects on supervision.

Post Civil War (1865)

Following the Civil War, the tidal wave of immigration at the turn of the century was responsible for irrevocable social, political and economic changes in American society. The development of the American industrial revolution, as well as the developments of new agricultural techniques, made a significant impact on the acceleration and expansion of all areas of life.

According to Alfonso (1931), political, social and economic changes in American society brought about changes in the philosophy of supervisory leadership. The concept of supervision emphasized the inspection of schools and classrooms for the sake of control and regulation; attention was also given to assisting teachers to improve themselves. Educational professionals who replaced lay people in supervision were state, county and local superintendents of schools, but principals were the main supervisors. Structured curricula were the basis of American education according to Dull (1981).

Progressive Education

Cremin (1964) wrote that progressive education started after the Civil War, peaked prior to World War I, and finally collapsed after World War II. Dewey had a reputation as an analyst of pedagogical schemes, and was the acknowledged spokesman of the progressive-education movement (Dropkin, 1975).

The philosophy of progressive education incorporated three main principles: 1) broadening of the school programs and activities to include direct concern for health, vocation, and the quality of family and community life, 2) the classroom application of educational principles derived from new scientific research in psychology and sociology, and 3) tailoring instructional curricula to the specific needs of students of different economic level (Cremin, 1964).

According to Katz (1975), the following objectives of progressive education were aimed at changing American political and institutional behavior: 1) the attempt to alter the political control of education, 2) the reformulation of educational thought, 3) the introduction of educational innovation, 4) the promotion of the pedagogical change, and 5) the injection of scientific management into administration.

1900 Industrialization

In the early 1900's, supervisory specialists were comparable to factory foremen (Alfonso, 1981). The industrial development had an impact on the social system which in turn made supervisory progress extremely complicated. However, research concerning supervision of industrial workers instituted improvement in motivation, productivity, and in general, increased esprit de corps, quality and quantity studies; all had their impact on supervisors in classrooms. A variety of new devices and techniques were introduced, for the improvement of curriculum and instruction as related to supervision in the twentieth century. Scientific measurement of product and process began to be introduced during this era (Brubacher, 1966).

Scientific Measurement

The rise of the scientific measurement movement obligated the supervisor to measure effectiveness of instruction as well as of learning. Furthermore, there

was a movement to involve teachers in research projects in hopes that teachers would become more aware of their problems (Brubacher, 1966). Katz (1975) stated that educational psychologists at that time synthesized the social and philosophic views of Dewey, and the major emphasis was on the testing and measuring of individual student performance in the classroom; their innovations created new roles for traditional supervisors.

Dewey set the stage for the problem-solving method and proposed five steps for investigating the unresolved: 1) identify the problem, 2) gather data, 3) clarify the problem, 4) propose hypotheses, and 5) test the hypotheses against experience.

Supervisors were, therefore, put into new roles making sure that students were active participants in the learning process, rather than simply being reservoirs of facts as had been previously assumed. The students were challenged to scrutinize, explore, and seek knowledge rather than simply memorize facts. This scientific approach altered both the responsibility and the focus of instructional supervisors (Dull, 1981).

World War I

The United States entered World War I in April 1917. National honor and the reality of waging a battle for democracy were powerful factors in America's struggle for international respectability--financially, industrially and militarily. Butts (1953) wrote that the students reflected the mood of democracy. Supervisors were involved in educational "assembly lines," stressing democratic values in curriculum construction.

In 1914, supervision consisted of monitoring classroom instruction through direct classroom observations and expert demonstrations by educational leaders; the focus of attention was placed upon the teacher's weaknesses. The supervisors attempted to affect improvement in instruction by having conferences with teachers after classroom visits. Demonstration teaching and the use of intricate systems for rating teachers were held in high regard during this period. Responsibility for supervision was generally divided between principals and special supervisors (Dull, 1981).

Post World War I (1920)

In the post war period, supervisors stressed curriculum revision as a subtle means for improving the quality of teachers. By emphasizing curriculum revision, supervisors hoped to upgrade the quality of instruction through actively engaging the teacher in improving their content areas (Brubacher, 1966).

Thus, the early part of the twentieth century was a significant era for change in administrative and supervisory styles. The schools, which had traditionally been places where knowledge was pounded in "by the rule of the hickory stick," shifted emphasis and became institutions where students were encouraged to become more active participants in the learning process. The industrialization movement brought about an interest in the humanistic movement, which spilled over into public schools. Teachers were encouraged to improve teaching methods; curricular revision was stressed as a means of upgrading the teachers themselves, the scientific approach altered the responsibility and focus of supervisors.

This period, through its progressive emphasis, strongly affected American education for decades. Perhaps the current "basic skills" movement afoot is but an image of the pendulum that once again swings toward preparing students by means of subject matter attainment.

Figure 1. Nature of Leadership Historical Development (adapted into a chart from Dull, Lloyd W., Supervision School Leadership Handbook. London: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1981, p. 2).

Year	Historical Events	Supervisors	Characteristics of Supervisors
1865	Post Civil War	Professional Educators State County Superintendents & Principals	Inspection of schools and classrooms, structured curriculum, control & regulation, some teacher improvement, start progressive movement.
1900	Industrialization	Principals & Special Supervisors	Supervisory specialists comparable to factory foremen, improvement of curriculum and instruction, scientific measurement, students as active participants, progressive movement gaining strength.
1917	U.S. entered World War I	Principals & Special Supervisors	Supervision direct classroom observation, demonstration, focus on teacher weaknesses, conference, intricate system of rating teachers, progressive movement at peak.
1920	Post World War I	Principals & Special Supervisors	Curriculum revision hoped to upgrade staff, progressive movement continues.

The Nature of Leadership From 1920 to 1950

Marilyn L. Steffel

The nature of educational leadership from 1920 to 1950 was affected by the socioeconomic and political events of the period. Among these events were rapid industrialization and urbanization, the Great Depression of the 30's, World War II, and the emergence of the United States as a world power. During this era there were radical changes in the arts and sciences. The amount of useful knowledge which man had been gradually acquiring through the ages began a dizzying spiral upward. The struggle that began in the late 19th century among proponents of different educational philosophies continued.

During the 20's and 30's there was a marked increase in the study of educational leadership and social problems. Supervisory processes in education received considerable attention, and researchers completed numerous studies. The early studies were "attempts to determine the extent and nature of supervisory services as reflected in the practices and duties performed by supervisors" (Alfonso, Firth, and Neville, 1981, p. 31). During the 30's and 40's, the influence of Gestalt psychology, which emphasized the relationship of the individual to the situation, provided a theoretical base for the efficacy of social supervision (Alfonso et al., 1981). According to Alfonso et al. (1981), there were three different theories of educational leadership during this era: scientific, democratic and group decision. On the other hand, Marriner (1978) lists only the trait theory as predominant during this period.

In the 20's there was a movement to differentiate between administrative and supervisory duties of school officers. The main responsibility of the supervisor became the improvement of the instructional process, while the duties of the administrator revolved mainly around the management of the school plant. Katz (1975) maintains that this led to the bureaucratization of the school system. Elaborate hierarchical structures and explicit chains of command became necessary to administer the increasing complexity of the urban education system. The head of the hierarchy became the one "vested with sufficient authority" to "devise plans in general and detail" and to "keep all subordinates in their proper places and at their assigned tasks" (Katz, 1975, p. 69). To perfect these

hierarchies career lines had to be developed within the school systems. This resulted in promotion from the ranks, the introduction of tenure and pensions, and the quest of schoolmen for professionalism. "Superintendents fostering the elaboration of hierarchies were really creating careers for themselves and their contemporaries" (Katz, 1975, p. 71).

The advent of the role of supervisor of educational instruction was a necessity. There were no uniform standards or minimum requirements for teacher education and employment. The technical training of teachers was pitifully inadequate. The work of educating future citizens of this country was considered important; therefore, it could only be accomplished with the aid of highly trained, expert leadership.

There were many supervisors during this era who were inadequately trained. Burton (1922) viewed them as persons who possessed "medieval ideas regarding the infallibility of those in power" (p. 13). There was a need for research showing the results of supervision in objective terms. In 1922, Burton, in Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching, attempted to define the nature of supervision by listing five tasks: 1) the improvement of the teaching act, 2) the selection and organization of subject matter, 3) testing and measuring, 4) the improvement of teachers in service, and 5) the rating of teachers.

Burton (1922) contended that the aim of supervision was "the improvement of teaching" (p. 10). According to him, the supervisor would inspire and encourage the good teacher to study and to prepare for higher positions and more responsibility. On the other hand, the supervisor would re-direct and improve the work of the average and mediocre teacher, and eliminate those teachers who failed to measure up to definite standards of good teaching. At that time some of these "standards of good teaching" had not been proven. Nevertheless, the supervisor must supply the means of enabling teachers to live up to the standards set, and to carry out the program outlined. The supervisor must be authoritative, scientific and impersonal, yet must manifest a kindly and sympathetic spirit. The type of leadership involved in supervision demanded the very highest type of well-rounded poised personality (Burton, 1922).

In 1922, Burton advocated democratic leadership in supervision, but his definition of democracy was similar to the scientific theory and methods described by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) and Katz (1975). In the words of Burton (1922), "democracy has implicitly in it the idea of delegated authority and of obedience to properly constituted expert leadership" (p. 380). Sergiovanni et al. found that in the traditional scientific supervisory theory "teachers are viewed as appendages of management, and, as such, are hired to carry out prespecified duties in accordance with the wishes of management. Control, accountability, and efficiency are emphasized in an atmosphere of clear-cut boss-subordinate relationships" (p. 3). Katz (1975) maintains that "the men who ran schools differed little in their attitudes and outlook from the men who ran businesses" (p. 124). He sees the conservative nature of progressiveness as prevalent during this period. One of the activities associated with this movement was "the injection of scientific management into administrative practice" (Katz, 1975, p. 114). According to Katz (1975), the application of scientific methods to simultaneously improve quality and lower costs was an outgrowth of the emphasis on efficiency in the writings of this era.

"The 1930s and 1940s were periods of creativity and refinement in supervision" (Alfonso et al., 1981, p. 31). There was an expansion of the democratic and the group decision theories of educational leadership. The democratic theory reflected the national climate of the post-depression years of the 30s. This type of supervision introduced an emphasis upon the teacher's participation and shared responsibility in the area of instructional improvement. However, Wiles (1967) alleges that democratic leadership in the 30s "meant a type of manipulation in which teachers were to be treated kindly and maneuvered into doing what the supervisor wanted to do all along" (p. 4). "The democratic supervision of the 1930s (kind treatment of the individual) evolved into the cooperative enterprise (group decision-making) of the 1940s" (Alfonso et al., 1981, p. 32). Kimball Wiles (1967) reports that the authors of the 40s "saw all the people in a school system supervising each other" (p. 4).

Up until the 40s, most of the investigations and writing on leadership were mainly concerned with discovering and listing the traits of character which made men leaders. This was done "by studying the lives of great men, by observing the behavior of leaders in action, or by experiments to determine the personal qualities that influence human behavior" (Hauman, 1951, p. 9). After a systematic analysis

and review of literature on leadership from 1904 to 1947, Ralph Stogdill (1974) listed these traits under five headings: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status.

During the 40s sociologists and psychologists analyzed democratic leadership as to its values and limitations. After World War II, the need for new ideas about leadership became urgent. One of the reasons for this was the need for man to acquire for himself a new dignity, increased worth, and greater respect. According to Gordon (1955), conceptualizations about leadership in groups became dependent upon one's basic philosophy about man as a human being.

The idea of group-centered leadership sprang from two principal sources: the group dynamics movement and the practice of client-centered psychotherapy (Gordon, 1955). "Group dynamicists...sensitized large numbers of persons to the fact that leadership is not something magical and mystical, but is a set of skills and attitudes that people can learn and develop" (Gordon, 1955, p. 88). As a result, training programs were started to prepare leaders in group process.

In the group-dynamics theory, the function of the democratic leader is to guide the group through a systematic and scientific approach to its problems by pulling divergent types together and coordinating them into a thinking team (Haiman, 1951). Haiman (1951) viewed the democratic leader as engaged in a reciprocal process in which he not only gave, but he took.

Thinking about leadership followed a new pathway in the late 40s. This new approach revolved "around the concept that leadership is specific to differing situations and that the factors which give rise to leadership in one situation may not be the same as those required of the leader in another situation" (Haiman, 1951, p. 10). In 1948, Stogdill reached the conclusion that "the qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader" (p. 63).

During the late 40s, some educators became dissatisfied with the traditional concepts of leadership. This dissatisfaction was seen in controversies about the proper role of the teacher as a leader and the growing interest of school administrators in the newer concepts of administration. Another factor that indirectly contributed to this discontent was the

Servicemen's Readjustment Act (later known as the G. I. Bill) passed in 1944. This Act gave many veterans an opportunity to continue their education. Because many of these veterans were older than the average student, teachers found that traditional instructional methods were not satisfactory. The extensive use of group discussion as used in adult education became a preferred teaching method. However, this created a demand for a new type of leadership in the classroom. At this time, because of the knowledge explosion, the field of adult continuing education began to flourish and to increase this demand.

In summary, the years from 1920 to 1950 were a period of professional maturation for educational leadership. Socioeconomic transformations and political events ushered in the shift from the traditional role of the leader, and these led to the increased emphasis upon the teacher participation and shared responsibility in the area of instructional improvement (Alfonso et al., 1981). Studies of the nature of leadership advanced from concentrating solely on individual tasks and traits to focusing on the characteristics and the interactive forces of group structures and situations.

The Nature of Leadership From 1950 to 1981

Marilyn L. Steffel

A review of the forces affecting the nature of leadership from 1950 to the present opens Pandora's box of socioeconomic and political events. Culbertson, Farquhar, Gaynor, and Shibles (1969) list these forces as: 1) the federal thrust in education, 2) the growing pressures to meet more effectively the needs of the racially segregated, the poverty-stricken, and the disadvantaged, 3) the changing character of the "business-education interface," 4) the increase in teacher militancy, 5) the diffusion of special management technologies into education, and 6) the growth of research and development in education. Another force that appeared in the 70s after the above mentioned Culbertson report was published, is the feminist movement. In addition to these forces, the knowledge explosion produced a plethora of psychosocial findings that have formed the foundation of numerous leadership, management and behavioral theories. The impact of these events, pressures and technologies is best expressed in the words of Alfonso et al. in 1981: "Supervisors must study formal organization, role theory, communication, decision-making, personality theory, the change process, and other areas... (in order to understand and deal with the) human relations perspective of supervision" (p. 36).

During this era a new phase in the nature of educational leadership developed. The line-and-staff functioning of the pyramidal hierarchy was no longer practical. Leadership structures and processes became oriented toward group participation.

During World War II, the need for understanding groups was greater than it had been in previous years. From research in the armed services, interest and application of the techniques of group dynamics had grown, not only in military circles, but also in universities and in business and industry (Level, 1967). The literature relative to group dynamics during the post-war period from 1948 to 1958, was reviewed by Dale Level (1967). He identified leadership in group dynamics as "a process of mutual stimulation - a social interaction phenomenon in which the attitudes, ideals, and aspirations of the followers play as important a determining role as do the individuality of the leaders" (p. 4). He also found that participatory leaders are more effective than supervisory leaders.

Although interest and application of the techniques of group dynamics was increasing, there were still many educational leaders who thought they were the only ones capable of selecting appropriate goals and making sound decisions. For example, in 1955, Gordon stated in Group-Centered Leadership that "it is becoming increasingly apparent that democracy in practice is not the same as democracy in theory" (p. 6).

According to Kimball Wiles (1967), the "cooperative enterprise" style of the leadership that originated in the 40s continued into the 50s until 1967, the year of Sputnik. In the years following Sputnik, the government became interested in improving the quality of education and began financing large curriculum projects. Many of the supervisors who were given the function of improving the educational program saw their role as one of convincing teachers to adopt the new programs and to develop skills to implement them. "Success was interpreted to be changing teachers in the desired direction" (Wiles, 1967, p. 4).

During the 60s, the leadership role of educational supervisors became one of confusion. In the words of Wiles (1967):

The supervisors with a specific mission to perform have seen themselves as directing the process of change, and their primary question has been one of strategy. Other supervisors, those who see themselves as helping professional people solve their instructional and curricular problems, have continued to work for improvement in the process of decision-making, decision-sharing, and curricular change. Teachers have become confused about the meaning of supervision, because they encounter many methods in the supervisors they know, and even a Dr. Jekyll-Mr. Hyde pattern of inconsistency in the same supervisor! (p. 4-5)

Two years before Wiles' book was published, an article appeared in Harvard Business Review that was to have an impact on educational leadership to this day. In this article, "Human Relations or Human Resources?" Raymond Miles (1965) reported that business managers had adopted two theories of participatory management. For subordinates they preferred the human

relations approach, but for themselves, they preferred the human resources approach. Miles (1965) listed the three basic components of the human relations and the human resources models as:

1. A set of assumptions about people's values and capabilities.
2. Certain prescriptions as to the amount and kind of participative policies and practices that managers should follow, in keeping with their assumptions about people.
3. A set of expectations with respect to the effects of participation on subordinate morale and performance. (p. 149)

Although there were differences in all three areas, the most striking occurs in the third component. Briefly, in the human relations model, participation leads to improved satisfaction and morale which leads to lower resistance and improved compliance with formal authority. In the human resources model, participation leads to improved decision-making and control which leads to improved subordinate satisfactions and morale (Miles, 1965). This concept of human resources supervision was adopted by Sergiovanni and Starratt in the early 70s in their book Supervision: Human Perspectives and further developed by them in the second edition published in 1979.

The Culbertson et al. report mentioned before was sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education "to develop concepts and generalizations basic to the restructuring of preparatory programs" for educational leaders of the future (1969, p. 2). Many educators in the 60s felt there was a substantial discrepancy between the professional training opportunities which were needed by the prospective leaders in education and the training opportunities which were available to them. This discrepancy was in part due to the radical changes which occurred in society and in education during the late 50s and early 60s. The report made recommendations about recruitment, program differentiation, program integration, departmental staffing and functions, program content, and program implementation.

In 1973, Fred Wilhelms pleaded for more descriptive statements related to what supervisors and leaders in education actually do instead of prescriptive statements telling them what they ought to do. He viewed an

essential function of the leader as one of adaptation. He considered supervision as the "nervous system of the school...the system which enables the school to adapt, in an era when change is so deep and pervasive that survival is at stake" (Wilhelms, 1973, p. 51).

The need for adapting to change was created by the knowledge explosion and led to the age of specialization. Culbertson et al. foresaw the future development of educational leaders as skilled specialists who use knowledge effectively in different ways. These specialists were to be:

...researchers who use knowledge to create new knowledge; synthesizers who order existing knowledge in new, enlightening, and useful ways; developers who use knowledge to project and invent solutions to general administrative and leadership problems; clinicians who can use knowledge to diagnose and inform specific practices; and administrators who use knowledge to improve "everyday" decisions and to shape intermediate and long-range policies (Culbertson et al., 1969, p. vii).

All of these specialists were to be fitted in the bureaucratic structure of the school system. It became obvious that because of specialization, the organizational structure of the school system had traveled a long way from the teachers and principal-teacher of colonial days.

The organizational power structure of the schools has been affected by legislation and judicial opinions. One factor that has affected this structure and has had an influence on the nature of leadership has been the unionization of classroom teachers and their right to collective bargaining. Alfonso et al. (1981) recognize that collective bargaining strains the relationship and widens the we-they gap between teachers and supervisors. Teachers' contracts tend to force a higher level of professionalism on the supervisors by forcing them to be more specific and objective in their evaluations of classroom instruction. This, in turn, creates a dilemma which is most apparent during a strike when supervisors must decide if their loyalties are with the teachers with whom they have formed relationships or with the administrators whom they represent.

The period from 1950 to 1980 could be called the era of proliferation of leadership theories. Hundreds of books and articles were published about management, organization, leadership, and group dynamics. The principles of leadership were taught to students at all levels and walks of life. Training courses for leaders became as common as shopping centers. In spite of all this, there are still educational leaders who do not share the decision-making process. In a recent book by Scimecca (1980), a sociologist and an educator, the educational leadership role of the principal is viewed as almost extinct because all of his time is spent overseeing and supervising programs mandated by the central administration. In addition, according to Dyer (1976), the participative group approach to leadership is meeting resistance from some persons because of cultural trends or bias. He lists some of these cultural roots, or barriers, to participative action as sex roles, prestige, formal status, formal leadership, and prejudice.

In recent years, educators are analyzing the phenomenon of instructional supervisory behavior by using empirical data from related fields in an attempt to define a theory of instructional leadership based on research. They are trying to establish the nature of leadership itself and to extract implications for its applications to instructional improvement. Other educators are focusing on the interpersonal relationships of the supervisor and the teacher and advocating a climate of mutual trust and respect. The trend is toward the formulation of a theory of educational leadership as a step toward a theory of education itself.

In summary, the period from 1950 to 1980 was one of dramatic forces which influenced the evolution of educational leadership. Because of the knowledge explosion, empirical data from the related fields of organization theory, decision theory, communication theory, leadership theory and change theory are being utilized to define a theory of instructional leadership. The 1980s will probably be the era of the eclectic approach as leaders focus on self-actualization of students, teachers, and other educational professionals (Sergiovanni et al., 1979). Leadership will be "behavior that causes individuals to move toward goals they find to be important and that create in the followers a feeling of well-being" (Alfonso et al., 1981, p. 94).

References

- Alfonso, R. J., Firth, G. R., & Neville, R. F. Instructional supervision. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1981.
- Brubacher, J. S. A history of the problems of education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966.
- Burton, W. H. Supervision and the improvement of teaching. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1922.
- Butts, F. R. A cultural history of western education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953.
- Cremin, L. A. The transformation of the school. New York: Vintage Books CA Division of Random House, 1964.
- Culbertson, J., Farquhar, R. H., Gaynor, A. K., & Shibles, M. R. Preparing educational leaders for the Seventies. (Project No. 8-0230. Grant No. OEG-0-8-080230-2695(010)). Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration, December 1969.
- Dropkin, S. Full, H., & Schwarcz, E. Contemporary American education. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1975.
- Dull, L. W. Supervision school leadership handbook. London: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1981.
- Dyer, W. G. Insight to impact strategies for interpersonal and organizational change. Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1976.
- Gordon, T. Group-centered leadership: A way of releasing the creative power of groups. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955.
- Gove, P. B. (Ed.). Webster's New International Dictionary. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1976.
- Haiman, F. S. Group leadership and democratic action. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.

- Katz, M. B. Class bureaucracy & schools. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975.
- Level, D. A. Leadership and group dynamics: A decade of selected research reports: 1948-1958. Lawrence, Kansas: The Communication Research Center, The University of Kansas, December 1967.
- Marriner, A. Theories of leadership. Nursing Leadership, 1978, 1, 13-17.
- Miles, R. E. Human relations or human resources? Harvard Business Review, July/August 1965, 43, 148-163.
- Scimecca, J. A. Education and society. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1980.
- Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. Supervision Human Perspectives. (2nd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1979.
- Stogdill, R. M. Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research. New York: The Free Press, 1974.
- Stogdill, R. M. Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. Journal of Psychology, 1948, 25, 35-71.
- Wiles, K. Supervision for better schools. (3rd Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.
- Wilhelms, F. T. Supervision in a new key. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1973.

DYNAMIC INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP:
WHICH STYLE FOR THE CRAFTSMAN?

Karen Carter
Jeff Goodman
Marydelle Polk

Dynamic Instructional Leadership:
Which Style for the Craftsman?

Abstract

Modern theory concerning instructional leadership styles has evolved from three traditional leadership philosophies: autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic. These philosophies are defined in order to provide a foundation for examining modern educational leadership theory. Following this introductory description, a review of current literature indicates the present status of leadership styles in education.

Chapter II

DYNAMIC INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP: WHICH STYLE FOR THE CRAFTSMAN?

Effective instructional leadership is as much a craft as a science, and as such, the leader must be comfortable in the "social territory," the complex and dynamic interaction of individuals, roles, groups and organizational and cultural systems (Levey and Loomba, 1973).

History has delved into the changing nature of leadership and social psychology and sociology has refined many analytical methods for the leader to understand and utilize in the scientific aspects of his/her profession. However, the primary "tool" that the leader-as-a-craftsman will use is him/herself. Leaders, like physicians, are "iatrogenic," that is, capable of spreading as well as eliminating disease. Unless the leader understands and is creative in his/her own actions and personality, and is also aware of the effects on others, he/she may be a "carrier" rather than a solver of problems.

It is essential that leaders in an instructional situation be willing and able to set up reliable mechanisms of feedback in order to clearly conceptualize the "social territory" of which they are an important part--and at the same time realize how they influence it.

Within the "social territory," the leader is defined in terms of his/her role within the group. Here, it is easier to identify actions common to all leaders (Massie and Douglass, 1973). These actions, historically called styles of leadership, have been studied in depth to determine the strengths of relationships between leader performance and styles of leadership.

In defining styles of leadership, many writers recognize three basic types: autocratic, laissez faire or free-rein, and democratic (Figure 1).

Figure 1

- | | |
|---|--|
| (1) AUTHORITARIAN
LEADERSHIP | ...in which the leader assumes full responsibility for all actions. |
| (2) LAISSEZ FAIRE
LEADERSHIP | ...in which the leader plays down his/her role in the group's activity and exercises a minimum of control. |
| (3) DEMOCRATIC
LEADERSHIP | ...in which the leader draws ideas and suggestions from his group by discussion and construction. |

Authoritarian Leadership

Jeff Goodman

The brief definition of the authoritarian style of leadership supplied in Figure 1 is an over-simplification of the total concept of this complex type of leadership. Authoritarian leadership is called by many different names. The most frequently used names for this style of leadership include autocratic, process centered, and product centered. The style described in the literature, but named differently by each researcher, writer, etc., will be named the "authoritarian style" by this author and referred to as such for the remainder of this section. A majority of the literature and research devoted to the authoritarian style of leadership centers on describing the style rather than drawing comparisons to other styles or describing the results of its use.

A review of the literature on the subject brought to light the changing nature of the description of the authoritarian style of leadership by the researchers of the subject. The following is a synopsis of the various descriptions and a discussion of the changes in definition of authoritarian leadership style: "A person who advocates, practices, or enforces unquestioning obedience to authority, as that of a dictator, rather than individual freedom of judgment and action" (Webster, 1976, p. 94). This definition, although quoted from the 1976 edition of Webster's New World Dictionary, reflects the common description of authoritarianism as it appears in the literature written before 1950. The common description of authoritarian style of leadership prior to 1950 characterized a very self-confident, strong-willed individual. This person handed down orders from on high and expected compliance and results without ever doubting the orders would be carried out. This typical description is exemplified very well by Peters (1966) in his definition of an authoritarian:

People whose right to command and to make decisions and pronouncements derives from established rules of procedure.... Authority is at hand where a rule is right or a decision must be obeyed or a pronouncement accepted simply because the 'authoritarian leader' says so. (p. 16)

The rules and orders, discussed above, which give authoritarians the right to command, fall into two basic categories. The literature describes these categories, using as a foundation different groups of legitimacy. In other words, the literature describes authoritarian leadership style as being influenced and driven by a claim to legitimacy of the rules and orders given. The two categories of legitimacy are summarized by Peters (1966) as follows:

1. Legal-Rational Authoritarianism: Claim to legitimacy rests on a belief in the legality of patterns of normative rules and the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands and expect results.
2. Traditional Authoritarianism: Claim to legitimacy rests on an established belief in the sanctity of immemorial traditions and the legitimacy of those exercising authority under them. (p. 16)

The emphasis on legitimacy as the driving force behind the authoritarian leader was included in a majority of the authoritarian descriptions, as supplied by the literature prior to 1950.

The year 1950 produced a book, written by four highly respected philosophers of the time, which apparently astonished the psychologists around the world. The book completely redescribes the authoritarian leader with its descriptions based on reanalyzing old data on the subject, as well as new scientific research. The Authoritarian Personality, by Adorno, Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950), described the rise of a "species" of man called the "authoritarian." The book describes the authoritarian in a contrasting style to the bigot of the older style. The authoritarian seems to combine the ideas and skills which are typical of a highly industrialized society with irrational or "anti-rational" beliefs. He is at the same time enlightened and superstitious, proud to be an individualist, and in constant fear of not being like all the others, jealous of his independence and inclined to submit blindly to power and authority.

This description is highly contrasting to the description of the pre-1950 authoritarian. As stated above, researchers tended to describe an authoritarian

as a very self-confident, strong and legitimacy-driven person prior to 1950 and The Authoritarian Personality, Adorno, et al, (1950) describes the person as one who confronts a world, with superfluous strength, in which stereotyped categories are substitutes for the individual experience of which he is incapable. His relations with others depend on consideration of power and success in which people figure as means, rather than as ends, and achievement is valued competitively, rather than for its own sake. In his world, the good, the powerful and the in-group merge to stand in opposition to the immoral, the weak and the out-group.

Needless to say, the description of an authoritarian by The Authoritarian Personality attracted the criticism of many authors. Two such authors devoted an entire book to the analysis and criticism of the findings. Kirscht and Dillehay (1967) make the following statements in regard to the controversial book:

As we sifted through the research stemming from The Authoritarian Personality, the problem of response bias intruded frequently in evaluation. We believe results based on paper-and-pencil tests are ambiguous to the extent that the tests may evoke acquiescence. (p. 8)

These two authors offer an alternative definition to authoritarianism in terms of a cognitive style--"close-minded cognitive functioning":

...Lacks the ability to deal with novel cognitive material, seeks rapid closure when exposed to new situations, and ultimately depends heavily on external authority for support of his belief system. (Kirscht and Dillehey, 1967, p. 91)

A brief summary of the changing description of the authoritarian style of leadership, as evidenced by the literature written before 1970, shows a trend to humble or lower the status of the authoritarian by analyzing the driving forces behind him. Current research describing the authoritarian leader follows the same trend.

A survey of principals and other mid-management level administrators relevant to their perceptions of qualities least appreciated in their superiors, describes

the authoritarian style of leadership very well. Erickson (1977) lists the following characteristics as the most frequent qualities least appreciated:

1. Failing to see employees as individuals with a potential for growth.
2. Failing to provide feedback to the employee. Management with no feedback is less accurate, produces great uncertainties on both sides, results in little satisfaction, breeds hostility, and is generally harmful to group morale.
3. Being inconsistent and unpredictable.
4. Failing to trust employees.
5. Failing to listen adequately.
6. Lavishing criticism and being tight-fisted with praise. (p. 17)

The characteristics listed above could be part of the definition of authoritarianism, as supplied by Sexton (1977). "One who has primary concern for the institution and its structure. Depicts autocracy and compliance with orders from the 'top'" (p. 20). Sexton (1977), in a study which compared leadership style to the risk-taking behavior of principals, further described authoritarian style leadership with the following statement of his findings:

There appears to be little reason to expect that one type of leader or another will display greater or lesser risk disposition insofar as each perceives the magnitude of situational favorableness. The incidence of risk taking cannot be increased by selection and employment of particular types of leaders... (p. 23)

Instructional leadership today follows a pattern consisting of several levels of management. The use of authoritarian leadership at these levels as well as their significance are reflected in the following discussion. Most instructional leaders have obtained or will obtain a college degree of some kind, and frequently, a masters or doctorate will be attempted. These future leaders, while in school, are exposed to the leadership styles practiced in higher education. The cliché, "teachers teach the same way they were taught," has some application to instructional leadership. The application of this

cliche to instructional leadership can only be accomplished at the superintendent and principal levels in education, as evidenced by the following research.

Prewitt (1978), in a study performed for the University of Mississippi, describes the leadership style of administrators of southern universities as being extremely authoritarian. He makes the following comment as a result of his study: "Analysis of the data indicates that top level university administrators are making most policy decisions and are not using the expertise available in their institutions" (p. 22). Superintendents of public schools exhibit the same characteristics, as evidenced by some research performed by Caldwell (1977). In a study which described the relationship between leadership style and teacher-initiated grievances, Caldwell found that most superintendents tend to rule their school districts with an authoritarian style of leadership. His findings also show that the authoritarian style used at the superintendent level highly correlated with a high frequency of teacher-initiated grievances.

Mid-management, or the principalship, is also characterized by the authoritarian style, as described in an earlier study. The research, using Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid, compared principal leadership styles to instructional supervisor leadership styles, as measured by teachers' perceptions of the style exhibited. Results of the study show teachers perceive principals as having less concern for task and people, and more concern with the institution and its structure when compared with instructional supervisors (Bennette and Morris, 1979).

Prewitt (1978), in his study previously described, found that the authoritarian style exhibited by principals and described in Morris' study, is accepted by teachers more readily than the authoritarian style when exhibited by superintendents. The study pointed out that individual principals use various styles of leadership every day, and teachers are tolerant of the authoritarian style when exhibited, because the other styles act as a buffer.

Authoritarian style leadership has its strengths and weaknesses, as evidenced by the research reported above. An overview of this research seems to indicate that it is advisable not to use authoritarian leadership, except in emergency or time-saving situations.

Laissez Faire (Free-Rein) Leadership

Marydelle Polk

Many reference books continue to speak of the meaning of laissez faire in terms of a prototype for business-government relationships in a capitalist market. However, laissez faire was the model of economic theory and not of political or governmental practice (Drucker, 1974).

In terms of leadership, laissez faire describes a group in which each member sets goals independently. This style of leadership occurs when a leader is too weak or too threatened to exercise both rights and responsibilities of leadership, or wherever a lack of trust within the group exists. The leader who personally has a great need for continued personal approval may practice laissez faire leadership out of fear of offending a subordinate. He/she desires to please everyone and, in the attempt, fails to provide direction or support (Stevens, 1975).

Although the laissez faire leader may provide information to the group, he/she provides little or no leadership. These leaders tend to be preoccupied with their own work (Douglass and Bevis, 1970). Communication and direction to the group are minimal, and most do as they want. There is very little team effort because there is no sense of unity or sense of having effective leadership.

This method of approaching leadership is the least efficient of three styles. It exists in "rebellion against autocratic leadership or because no leader is capable or willing to assume the responsibility of a leader role..." (Douglass and Bevis, 1970). Often, hostility generated by the autocratic leadership traditionally seen can result in a leader who is determined to be exactly opposite of all that was despised in the previous leader. Because of lack of information, the individual practices a laissez faire leadership in the mistaken belief that it is really a democratic rule that is being practiced. This "let alone" policy will repudiate any leadership that may have been present at the beginning, and the work situation will rapidly disintegrate into a disorganized hodgepodge in which no one knows or cares what he/she is supposed to do. A group member in this kind of atmosphere will lose all sense of initiative and desire for achievement (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974).

The research continues to indicate that the skill and ability with which an individual applies the elements of the three basic styles determines that person's personal success as a leader. Divincenti (1977) focuses on the continual change of the styles, according to the time period, and states that the effective leader will be the one who strives to adapt and shift his/her style to fit the changing conditions, problems and people. These are the people who see the leadership role as a continuing process.

Elements of the laissez faire style continue to be evident in today's educational leadership arena. Millett (1978) speaks of organized anarchy as a model of administration, which many leaders feel prevails on many university campuses today. This leadership is characterized by an unplanned state of affairs and an absence of governance. West (1979) states that the lines of authority are not clear and thus creates problems when decisions are to be made. Usually, these organizations operate under goals that are broad and lacking in content. He further suggests that, because of the current budgetary constraints, these universities will be forced to develop more business-like models of governance. However, there is also the danger that a more business-like model may cause too much concern with achieving goals and too little concern for the nature of the goals.

Mandelbaum (1979) describes organized anarchy as laissez faire in essence, since it allows the lack of communication and the exploitation by administrators due to the lack of role definition. He states that academic freedom may become license or may not provide adequate structure for the faculty.

Researchers have attempted to analyze the exact nature of leadership. During the past two decades, theorists such as Blake and Mouton (1964) have advocated a blending of styles which reflect an equal concern for people and production. Goal complexity was demonstrated by Fiedler (1974) to be an important style determinant. The level of maturity was identified as an important variable in the studies of Hersey and Blanchard (1976), in which a refined situational model was utilized in analyzing educational leadership problems. Weed, Mitchell and Moffitt (1976) provided new information concerning the observable effects of interactions between leadership style, subordinate personality, and task type. The effects of different combinations of these variables on group performance and satisfaction with supervision were investigated. Three different

styles of leaders were selected and trained: (a) high in human relations and high in task orientation, (b) low in human relations and high in task orientation, and (c) high in human relations and low in task orientation. Each leader was assigned to work with eight low and eight high authoritarianism subjects on four tasks that varied in difficulty and ambiguity. Findings revealed that, regardless of the subordinate's personality, they were most satisfied with the leadership style that was high in human relations orientation.

Other researchers, such as Kruz and Joy (1976), investigated relationships between the perceived style of leadership of principals and the "zone of acceptance" of teachers in areas concerning professional matters. Simon (1965) had earlier defined the concept of "zone of acceptance" as that range of behavior within which subordinates are ready to accept the decisions made for them by their superiors. Clear and Seager (1971) further defined the concept to include professionalism, and stated that the "professional zone of acceptance" of teachers involved matters requiring a professional judgment. This includes "receptivity to administration criticism," "methods of disciplining students," and "techniques for evaluating students." These writers believe that it is this area that the most disagreement occurs regarding the legitimacy of administrative influence. Their results, focusing at the secondary level, indicated that the subordinates' "professional zone of acceptance" was related to the perceived style of leadership of the principal. Those principals who provided little structure appeared to have a disadvantage in creating an effective organization, even though they were considerate of subordinates.

More recently, Bennett and Morris (1979) studied styles of leadership in principals and instructional supervisors while they were involved in specific supervisory duties. Twelve supervisory competency areas were examined. Two hundred and thirty-eight classroom teachers participated in the study. Data analysis compared principals to supervisors on the leadership dimensions of concern for people and concern for task in each of the twelve competency areas. Significant differences in leadership behavior were noted only in the competency area of curriculum change. Results also seemed to indicate that the teachers viewed supervisors as being more concerned for people and tasks than were the principals.

These findings support the conclusions that Saul Gellerman (1976) found when he analyzed the jobs of first-line supervisors in a major food processing company. He believes that those in the leadership role should view substance and style together and not as separate components because, when taken together, substance and style determine the total influence of a leader.

Gordon Cawelti (1979), in his article, "Which Leadership Style--From the Head or Heart?" utilizes Michael Maccoby's management personnel study (1976) to emphasize the importance of values and goals of the leader in determining his priorities in pushing for or compromising on issues. The value base of the individual will also affect the individual's interpersonal relationships.

Maccoby's (1976) study of 250 top management personnel has implications for today's educational leaders. His identification of four types of leaders is useful and aids in a clearer understanding of the variations in leader behavior. The following is a brief description of each type: (1) craftsman--desires perfection in the finished product, emphasizes quality work, and is usually modest, practical and oftentimes quiet; (2) jungle fighter--concerned with obtaining power over subordinates, usually involved in politicking to get and stay ahead; (3) company man--seeks to maintain the status quo, especially the stability and integrity of the organization. Concerns self with the human element of the business; and (4) gamesman--enjoys competition and ultimately the win, desires to motivate people and likes to take risks. The contest excites this leader and this is communicated as enthusiasm to subordinates, thus energizing them.

Cawelti (1979) believes that there are some educational leaders that resemble the "gamesman." These individuals join in the team effort, enjoy the winning, but display little compassion-especially in the area of social consciousness. He also advocates more risk taking among educational leaders, as he sees this as one way that education can demonstrate joint concerns for people and goals of an institution.

Democratic Leadership

Karen Carter

A study of the democratic style of leadership necessitates some understanding of basic democratic philosophy. Generally, the ideals of democracy which emerged during the eighteenth century evolved out of classical humanistic theory which held that individuals must be free to work, share life experiences, and determine their own destinies. It was believed that extending participatory decision-making to the common citizenry would reduce tyranny and promote social consciousness, thus improving government. Through this participatory process, it was intended that the will of the majority would be expressed in determining "the common good." The aim of education in this system, then, sought to prepare a person for associative living and participatory governance.

Dewey (1944) identified three philosophies which have contributed to the modern interpretation of democratic education: platonic, individualistic, and nationalistic. The teachings of Plato stressed that the business of educators was to recognize and develop an individual's talents for the good of society. Eighteenth century individualism, on the other hand, focused on freedom of creativity without social constraint. While this idea seemed to foster isolated schools, it was really a movement toward emancipating education from external controls. Finally nationalistic philosophy saw education as a civic function. These ideals were particularly influenced by German belief which subordinated individual interests to state welfare. The nationalistic philosophy believed that education was the best protection for state integrity and power, and that educational leadership should stress civic responsibility and commitment to national welfare.

Modern leadership theory for democratic education encompasses ideas from all of these philosophies. While leaders in this system encourage individuals to develop their own opinions on fundamental beliefs, they realize that a consensus must be established for determining the ultimate goals of the institution. Additionally, the instructional leader operating by democratic philosophy seeks to develop the creative talents of individuals, as well as to promote the ideals of citizenship in order to stimulate social insight.

Horne (1932) has identified four qualities of the democratic educator. He defines these qualities in the following way:

Directness--confidence in one's ability;
belief that learning is secondary to
direct activities;

Open-mindedness--acceptance of others'
ideas;

Single-mindedness--unity of purpose;
refusal to allow one's attention to
be divided;

Responsibility--advance consideration
given to consequences of all actions.

Specific methods for achieving democratic leadership in education were outlined by Rugg (1939). These included the following:

Assist the person to improve daily
living;

Assist the person to believe in the
worth of creativity, the right to be
unique;

Assist the person to work with others,
to accept responsibility, and to
function within groups;

Assist the person to think critically
and experiment with ideas.

Current literature on educational leadership styles reflects broad commitment to a democratic philosophy. According to Sherman (1973), the foundation of democracy as a leadership style in education rests on the art of compromise. He has defined this process as an ability to form a unified agreement from multiple ideas through discussion and concession. In this system, individuals are encouraged to utilize scientific methods to collect, validate, and analyze data in order to promote progressive change for societal improvement.

Wolfe (1978), who influenced most of the federal education initiatives of the sixties, describes the foundation of this approach as equality of opportunity. She explains that democratic leaders permit the individual

to play a creative role in the solution of problems. Fundamentally, democratic leadership recognizes the worth of individuals and creates a climate wherein each person can be heard.

A vital concern of education and, therefore, its leaders is "the development of the motivational commitments of each generation..." (Whittier, 1976, p. 62). This responsibility mandates instructional leaders to provide individuals with the tools of learning, as well as to instill a motivation to continue to learn throughout life. Learning opportunities must be provided which help individuals translate knowledge into action to solve today's problems.

Rich (1976) discusses democratic leadership in the international realm. His philosophy regarding the aim of education involves development of values, attitudes, and abilities which will assist mankind to pursue common ideals. Democratic leadership in formal education, then, would contribute to the establishment of international world order.

While democratic leadership skills are desirable, according to Hartmann (1977), the most common leadership style continues to be authoritarian. She believes that this creates a grave problem in terms of education, because there are so few models from whom neophyte teachers can learn democratic techniques. Hartmann summarizes democratic leadership as personal interactive behavior and discusses a self-development program for teachers which changes teacher behavior "to be congruent with humanistic objectives..." (Hartmann, 1977, p. 42). The program involves videotaping of teachers in the classroom, individual viewing and coding of the videotapes, and analysis of the tapes to determine congruency between actual behavior and established objectives. After six years experience with this system, Hartmann has made several recommendations as to its use in developing democratic leadership skills: 1) it may be useful for providing criteria for administrator/teacher selection; 2) it provides a support system and feedback mechanism to allow individuals to improve their interactive skills; and 3) it will assist leaders to become "nonevaluative catalyst(s) with supportive group dynamic skills" (Hartmann, 1977, p. 44).

Lumley (1979) discusses educational leadership in terms of how administrators can assist teachers to participate in educational decision-making. Her premise is that teacher participation is desirable and that administrators should facilitate this interaction by defining the group decision-making technique, determining what decisions need to be made, and selecting appropriate group process.

Spieser (1980) provides an interesting and enjoyable look at leadership styles in his analysis of Captain Kirk, commander of Star Trek's starship Enterprise. Captain Kirk uses several strategies to inspire loyalty in his staff: he is calm under pressure, he has open lines of communication; he is compassionate, but firm; he acts with confidence and skill; he is a creative problem-solver; he is in excellent physical condition; and, finally, although he is the leader, he is appropriately personal and humorous. Spieser acknowledges that Captain Kirk develops leadership in others by encouraging individual creativity and skill development. He is a supporter of middle management and shows full confidence in his executive officers. In summary, Spieser recommends that educational leaders could do well to model the Kirk style by becoming more interested in people rather than administrative tasks, by creating an atmosphere which supports self-confidence, and by instilling a sense of dignity in subordinates.

The democratic instructional leader might best be characterized as a facilitator. This person recognizes individuality and encourages the use of creativity, skill, and intelligence. The democratic leader allows individuals to make choices among alternatives, to problem-solve, and to direct their own abilities. Ultimately, the desired outcome of this leadership style is effective utilization of every individual's unique knowledge and abilities to create a better society.

In conclusion, some of the relevant research directed toward the elements of the three traditional styles of leadership has been presented. The traditional has given way to a multidimensional type of leadership style. The success of the leader will depend upon personal beliefs about role and power, value systems, level of aspirations, confidence in others, feelings of security, and the desire to lead. This style, as research shows, changes with each situation and is not totally molded to the social structure of the organization. These many facets of leadership will assist the educational leader in bringing balance to the qualities of the head or the heart type of leadership.

References

- Adorno, T. W., Frenkel-Brunswir, E., Levinson, D. J., & Sanford, R. N. The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper, 1950.
- Bennett, R. M. & Morris, J. E. Styles of supervising teachers and student teachers utilizing a grid technique. Southern Journal of Educational Research, 1979, 13, 139-151.
- Blanchard, K. H., Hersey, P., & Gates, P. E. Diagnosing educational leadership problems: A situational approach. Educational Leadership, 1976, 36, 348-354.
- Blake, R. R. & Mouton, J. S. The managerial grid: Key orientation for achieving production through people. Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964.
- Caldwell, W. E. The relationship between the management performance characteristics of superintendents and the frequency of teacher-initiated grievances. New York, New York: Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED136381.
- Cawelti, G. Which leadership style--from the head or heart? Educational Leadership, 1979, 36, 374-378.
- Clear, D. K. & Seager, R. C. The legitimacy of groups. Educational Administrative Quarterly, 1971, 7, 47-52.
- Coulson, A. A. Research report: Leadership functions in primary schools. Educational Administration, 1976, 5, 37-49.
- Dewey, J. Democracy and education. New York: Macmillan, 1944.
- Divincenti, M. Administering nursing service. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1977.
- Douglass, L. & Bevis, E. Team leadership in action. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Company, 1976.
- Drucker, P. F. Management. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1974.

- Erickson, K. A. Humaneness...a management essential. N.A.S.S.P. Bulletin, 1977, 61, 15-18.
- Fiedler, F. E. & Chemers, M. M. Leadership and effective management. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1974.
- Fiedler, F. E. Predicting the effects of leadership training and experience from the contingency model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1972, 56, 114-119.
- Gellerman, S. W. Supervision: Substance and style. Harvard Business Review, 1976, 54, 89-99.
- Guralnik, D. B. (Ed.). Webster's new world dictionary of the American language (revised edition). The World Publishing Company.
- Halloway, W. H. A study of leadership style, situation, favorableness, and the risk-taking behavior of leaders. Journal of Educational Administration, 1978, 16, 160-168.
- Hart, J. K. Democracy in education. New York: Century, 1918.
- Hartmann, C. L. Democratic leadership doesn't just happen. N.A.S.S.P. Bulletin, December 1977, 41-45.
- Horne, H. H. The democratic philosophy of education. New York: Macmillan, 1932.
- Kirscht, J. P. & Dillehay, R. C. Dimensions of authoritarianism: A review of research and theory. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1967.
- Kruz, D. W. & Joy, W. K. Leadership style of principals and the professional zone of acceptance of teachers. Educational Administrative Quarterly, 1976, 12, 49-64.
- Levey, S. & Loomba, N. P. Health care administration. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1973.
- Lumley, D. D. Participation in educational decision-making. Educational Horizons, Spring 1979, 123-125.
- Maccoby, M. The gamesman. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1976.

- Mandelbaum, S. J. The intelligence of universities. Journal of Higher Education, 1979, 50, 697-725.
- Massie, J. & Douglas, J. Managing: A contemporary introduction. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973.
- Millett, J. D. New structures of campus power. San Francisco: Jossey-Base Publishers, 1979.
- Peters, R. Authority, responsibility, and education (2nd ed.). New York: Atherton, 1966.
- Prewitt, S. A. Organizational processes in southern universities. Mississippi: University of Mississippi, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED174162).
- Rich, J. M. Problems and prospects for democratic education. Theory Into Practice, January 1976, 54-59.
- Rugg, H. (Ed.). Democracy and the curriculum. New York: Appleton-Century, 1939.
- Sexton, M. J. & Switzer, K. Educational leadership: No longer a potpourri. Educational Leadership, 1977, 35, 19-24.
- Sherman, R. R. Democracy, stoicism, and education. Tallahassee: University of Florida, 1973.
- Simon, H. A. Administrative behavior. New York: The Free Press, 1965.
- Spieser, L. B. Captain Kirk, his leadership style as a model for principals. — N.A.S.S.P. Bulletin, March 1980, 105-109.
- Stevens, B. J. The nurse as executive. Wakefield, Massachusetts: Contemporary Publishing, Inc., 1975.
- Weed, S. E., Mitchell, T. R. & Moffitt, W. Leadership style, subordinate personality, and task type as predictors of performance and satisfaction with supervision. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1976, 61, 58-66.
- West, R. P. Will playfulness be possible in university management? The College Board Review, 1979, 112, 14-15, 18-19.

Whittier, T. Democracy in education. Theory Into Practice, January 1976, 61-68.

Wolfe, D. P. American democracy: Its challenge from abroad. Phi Delta Kappan, November 1978, 159-160.

WHO AND WHERE:
FACTORS IN LEADERSHIP MODELS

Judy Dacus
Thomas Kline
Alicia Onsurez

Who and Where:
Factors in Leadership Models

Abstract

Theories of leadership in elementary school settings based on personality characteristics are discussed. The special situations in higher education which delimit the role of the academic officer are also considered. Finally, steps to follow in the development of a personal leadership model are outlined.

Chapter III

WHO AND WHERE: FACTORS IN LEADERSHIP MODEL

The prevailing theories of leadership have dealt with personality characteristics that leaders should possess. Elementary school principals exhibit many of the characteristics outlined in several of the theories. It would appear that the development of an eclectic or flexible model based on these theories is imminent.

In higher education, the leadership role of the academic officer is defined by the special situations found in these institutions. A brief review of literature indicates the personal characteristics, the conditions, and the methods which are observed in effective leadership in higher education. The specific case of the academic officer at New Mexico State University provides information on the application of these principles.

Steps to follow in the development of a personal leadership model are outlined. Indications are given of the type of research that is available from which leaders can choose elements for their model. Leaders must consider their personal model as a continually developing process.

Developing a Model for Educational Leadership

Thomas P. Kline

Effective educational leadership requires careful advance planning. Without planning, the educational leader will be simply reacting expediently to each situation as it arises. This planning should be continual and systematic. The results of this planning can be described by the term leadership model. The model will consist of a series of interlocking sub-models designed to accomplish the various leadership tasks.

Educational leaders and the situations in which they work are all somewhat unique. It should be expected that each educational leader will develop a personal leadership model. This personal model will differ in some details from other models; yet there is a common pool of information from which all models can be drawn.

Deciding which research applies to the given situation and which methods should be used is part of the process of building a flexible and personal model. According to Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975), the research important to educational leadership is concentrated in the areas of leadership style, organization, communication and change.

A proposed model for leadership development is profiled in Figure 1. This model is meant to be general enough for use at any level, although there may be an unconscious bias in the direction of the secondary schools. The material presented should be considered a mere hint at the vast array of knowledge and skills that can be drawn upon to develop a personal model for educational leadership. It should also be noted that while evaluation must be an integral part of the model, it will not be discussed here.

Each leader will develop a personal model in his/her own way. Nothing is sacred about the order chosen here for topic development. One of the models (submodels) needed for inclusion in the larger leadership model is that for leadership style.

Leadership Styles

As part of a leadership model, the leader has a choice of styles, each of which has more or less

Figure 1
Developing a Personal Leadership Model

1. Investigate leadership styles.
 - A. Develop personal models for each leadership function.
 - B. Anticipate possible outcomes.
 - C. Decide upon and develop evaluation procedures.
2. Investigate the organization.
 - A. Outline chain of command.
 - B. Outline informal structure (might have to be done over a period of time).
 - C. Decide upon a model to be used.
 - D. Construct a set of organizational procedures.
 - E. Decide upon an evaluation model.
3. Investigate communication models.
 - A. Outline communication chains for:
 1. Small groups
 2. Individuals
4. Do self analysis.
5. Develop change model.
6. Develop model for implementation.
7. Develop a model for evaluation of entire leadership process including the model.

predictable outcomes. The leader's job is to know the different styles, the best situation in which to use each style, and the kind of results to expect. Leadership styles and their application are discussed more fully elsewhere in this volume.

Organization

An educational leader is hired into an organization that has an existing set of goals and administrative structure. If the organization and the leader are to be effective, then the lines of responsibility and the distribution of authority must be clearly defined. Sometimes, as with supervisors, this is not the case. Most supervisors feel that their responsibility far exceeds their authority (Browne & Neitzel, 1952). This imbalance tends to confuse the lines of authority and the application of power. The authority and power supervisors have may derive more from their position as principal or as department head than from their supervisory duties. A supervisor from the central office has the additional problem of sharing authority with each school's administration. Whether authority and power are to be shared or not shared must be one of the factors incorporated into the working leadership model.

A working model must be developed keeping in mind both the formal and informal power and authority structures. Lucio and McNeil (1969) state that the informal structure, which can include cliques and friendship groups, is able to "exercise power or set expectations which may or may not be at variance with the formal organization of the school" (p. 136).

Even cliques that are external to the school's organization must be considered. A leader disregards them at the risk of harm to the school and to his/her personal career. The biases of both internal and external power groups must be anticipated, assessed and dealt with. The leader's working model must allow the leader to operate within the informal structures as well as the formal ones (Lucio & McNeil, 1969). According to Boshear and Albrecht (1977) the informal structure can be capitalized upon to more effectively meet objectives. Sharing power and utilizing temporary group structures might be considered. It has been found that shared power tends to increase the leader's power not diminish it (Research Brief, No. 2, 1978). Temporary group structure can make use of power

groups without threatening the existing order and at the same time can cause pronounced attitude change on the part of the members (Miles, 1964).

Whether dealing with power groups or individuals, the educational leader must establish a good and trusting relationship. To that end, an organizational plan should be helpful in focusing the leader's attention. Some, but not all, of the organizational principles needed for establishing an organizational model are given in the following brief list which is based upon the work of Knox, et al (1977):

1. The leader should supplement what role authority he/she has with the authority of knowledge.
2. There needs to be a reward system which recognizes both the achievement of the task and the growth of the people involved.
3. There should be an attempt to inculcate a sense of sharing of the organizational objectives.
4. There needs to be an open problem-solving climate.

All of these seem to point to the necessity of having a good system of communication.

Communication Models

The educational leader carries out a variety of tasks. For each job, there is the need for a method of communication. Since these jobs range from the chairing of small group meetings to classroom observations, the communication skills must range from facilitating group communication to insuring open one-to-one communication in the supervisor-teacher relationship. Effective leadership depends upon effective communication.

Roger E. Jones (1980) argues that an effective communication model must make provision for all forms of communication. The educational leader must be aware of nonverbal as well as verbal communication. While recognizing the difficulty of finding research that applies directly to educational leadership, Jones further states that communication models should be supported as much as possible by research.

Drawing implications for leadership theory from research requires the assimilation and use of information from diverse fields. One such piece of information is the aspiration to advancement by subordinates (Read, 1962). Ambition can block communication between supervisor and teacher; a block that need not develop if a good and trusting relationship exists. Ricken (1980) suggests that the educational leader should work with the ambitious teacher to see that he/she assumes responsibility for meaningful activities rather than the usual trivial duties. The implication is that helping the ambitious teacher will foster the needed thrust. A further and more general implication is the overwhelming need for interpersonal skills that result in mutual trust between teacher and instructional leader.

Trust does not automatically follow from factors such as having some experience in common. An educational leader that has been a teacher cannot trade upon that fact to establish good communication (Maier, et al, 1963). Rather, the leader must rely upon what can be learned from research about communication. For instance, in the area of nonverbal communication, the leader must be careful not to penetrate the teacher's personal zone. Boshear and Albrecht (1977) believe this zone to extend out at least to arm's length. Some forms of posture, eye contact, and gestures may be interpreted by the teacher as signifying disapproval when they were not so intended. Educational leaders should learn about such things as body language so as to be sensitive to teacher discomfort deriving from this type of behavior.

Haase and DiMattia (1970) found that proxemics come into play even in the supervisory conference. They found that the preferred mode of interaction is for the two participants to sit across the corner of the desk at more or less right angles to one another. It is the job of the educational leader to keep lines of communication open.

When the flow of communication stops in the supervisory relationship, Jones' model gives the educational leader a list of possible reasons. He suggests that the first step is to assume that the block is the fault of the supervisor. The block may result when the supervisor confuses facts, values, and opinions or when the leader is too directive. His list is more exhaustive than the two items listed here and he also gives a corresponding list for determining if the teacher's behavior has produced the

block. The educational leader should develop such a list for incorporation within the communication model.

Also needed within the model are principles of communication for small group situations. Research on small group communications usually uses the imagery of people as links in a communication chain. Leavitt (1951) found that for small groups, the communication chain with the fewest possible links between sender and receiver is the best. Heise and Miller (1951) suggest that communication chains should either have open and two-way communication between all members in the chain or a central coordinator through which all communication passes. Messages which come down a chain without feedback are not optimum communication. Bolton and Boyer (1971) found that while one-way communication is more efficient, it is also less accurate than two-way communication. In addition to the above, two-way communication allows control to be shared with the listener. The educational leader must fit the communication model to the situation.

Personality and Change

Educational leaders are not identical clones. Successful leadership has not been traced to any particular set of personality traits (Alfonso, et al, 1975). However, it may be the case that some traits are more desirable than others even if not absolutely necessary. McGrath and Altman (1966) found, from a survey of available research, that leader stability as a positive trait was substantiated at least to some extent. Guilford (1952) found that, along with emotional stability, leaders needed to be high in calmness and cooperativeness. Stogdill (1948) found that the average leader is higher than the average member of the group in intelligence, scholarship, dependability, activity, social participation, and socio-economic status. Kinnard White (1965) reached the conclusion that when compared to the general population, an educational leader is usually an extrovert with a practical orientation. He also found that educational leaders tend to be conservative and have a high degree of interest in and involvement with social concerns.

While the above traits may not be absolutely necessary to good leadership, it is important to the leader to know his/her own personality traits so

that they can either be exploited or suppressed. It is important to a leader to know, for instance, whether he/she is primarily an internal-control or an external-control personality. The research of Phares and Lamiell (1975) points out that the internal-control leader is less prone to regard other people in need to be deserving of help. This may serve to erect blocks in the leader-teacher relationship if the teacher perceives such leaders as not being sympathetic to teacher problems. As they further note, self knowledge of this trait can help to ameliorate its effect.

Personality traits, even when recognized through self analysis, may be difficult to change. Teacher-supervisor conflicts are very likely to be a result of behavioral conflicts which are changeable (Blumberg, 1974). One such leader behavior that has been shown to be a source of teacher anxiety is strict adherence to procedure (Marcus, 1961).

Other leadership behavior that is subject to control is the behavior associated with change. The leadership model must contain provision for accomplishing the change needed to attain the goals of the organization. Equally important is the enhancement of the teachers' feelings of importance and dignity which contribute to teacher job satisfaction. In this effort, one of the most important factors to realize is that planned change can be best accomplished when the problems worked on are perceived as problems by the people involved, which in this case would be the teachers (Sibley, 1960-61). Also, according to Mendenhall (1977), job satisfaction is related to decision-making. She states that the more the staff is involved in decision-making the higher is job satisfaction. Conversely, the higher in the organization important decisions are made, the less job satisfaction is evidenced. As a rule, decisions should be made on the level at which they will be put into operation. Job satisfaction can decrease if norms and expectations are made formal without these norms and expectations being congruent with those accepted by the teachers. Again, the key is the participation and input of the staff to reach mutual agreement. Through this participation the teachers feel the importance of their own contributions.

The educational leadership model must be designed to take into account the process by which teachers will adopt change. Everett M. Rogers (1962) believes that the process has five stages: awareness, interest,

evaluation, trial, and adoption. At different stages of adoption, various types of information sources are most likely to be effective. During the awareness state, sources that are impersonal and national are most acceptable; during the evaluation and adoption states, more personal and local sources of information are acceptable. It has been found that it is more effective to use outside professional change agents because they seem to have wider acceptance by the teachers than do local agents (Fox & Lippitt, 1964).

In addition to outside resource personnel, the leadership model must take into account the informal structures. The leader can expect success in the change process when acknowledging such factors as length of tenure. Additionally, the leader should be aware that the lower the social status of the teacher, the more difficult it is to implement change. Change can polarize a faculty in many ways. The "old timers" against the "new comers" is just one possible split (Alwood, 1964). Whatever the length of tenure, change is threatening. It doesn't matter how small the change may appear to be, someone is likely to feel threatened by it. The leader needs to use a change model, either one based on the previous discussion, or another deemed more appropriate.

Up to this point, the origin of change has not been considered. Part of job satisfaction may involve seeing suggestions implemented. Somewhere in the change model there should be provision for the consideration of innovation that has been suggested by someone at the bottom of the hierarchy. Change and innovation tends to be suffocated by the hierarchical nature of the organization (Griffiths, 1964). A successful leader will see that innovation is not stifled.

Anytime that the leader tries to influence people toward change, there may be unanticipated side effects (Mackenzie, 1964). Some of these side effects will be desirable. Other effects will not be wanted and will have to be dealt with by the educational leader.

Implementation

Once a working model has been developed, the next step is implementation. Stephen B. Fisher, et al (1980) have developed a six step model for implementation:

1. Plan the model;

2. Submit to superiors for review and acceptance;
3. Public disclosure of activities;
4. Interviews with administrators, staff, and members of the community;
5. Plan school visitations;
6. Meet monthly with a key group.

Conclusion

The above series of intersecting and nested models is not meant to be more than a suggested outline for action. The development of an actual working model would result in a much more detailed plan reflecting the individual abilities and tastes of the leader as well as the realities of the particular situation.

There is no single set of principles that can be considered as final or fixed in the development of a model. The leader needs to survey current research in all applicable fields. Even areas of study not mentioned above might produce insight helpful in keeping the model current. The leader must treat his personal model as something that is developmental and constantly undergoing research-based modifications.

The Role of the University Executive
Vice-President in Instructional Development

Judy Dacus

At universities there is an administrative position which is responsible for academic development. It may be the Vice-President for Academic Affairs, the Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs or some other similar title. This administrator is usually charged with the "administration of academic colleges and schools, and coordination of all divisions of the university" (New Mexico State University Administrative Policies and Procedures Manual, 1980, p. 1). What kind of person is most effective in this position? What conditions must exist for academic reform? What kinds of programs are academic officers involved in developing? How can the academic officer provide help for those who are interested in instructional development?

What kind of person is most effective in this position? The administrator involved in instructional development at the university must keep the lines of communication open between faculty, students, regents and state agencies (Romine, 1974). Open communication between these groups facilitates understanding and cooperation and provides for the most efficient operation in academic development activities. Romine states that understanding, encouragement and support by the university administrators are necessary for optimal educational outcomes. The need for administrative leadership and support are greatest when major modifications are attempted.

Administrators who are heavy-handed and lack concern for the consent of the governed will eventually make decisions which create strife among faculty (Walker, 1979). In these cases the consent becomes dissent and may result in the dismissal of the administrator(s) who are viewed as the perpetrators of strife.

What conditions must exist for academic reform? Melander & Pitts (1977) list four conditions which must exist for academic reform to occur in a university where the development of curriculum offerings is primarily the responsibility of the faculty within each department. These conditions are:

1. An overall commitment to academic development and reform;
2. A clear understanding of the reform process and of the roles and responsibilities of all potential participants;
3. A well-developed institutional capability to design, implement, and evaluate experiments; and
4. Flexible organizational structures and adequate resources. (p. 116)

Explicit linkage of the missions and goals of the institution with the need for academic development and reform can help develop the overall commitment of both faculty and administrators to academic development and reform. Promotion and tenure can be used as incentives for faculty development. Conferences, workshops and seminars can help faculty understand the reform process and their roles and responsibilities. Resources, for example mini-grants, can be used to encourage experiments in academic reform. Flexible organization can be developed through constant review and revision.

While these steps are worthwhile goals they are difficult to attain. Glenny (1979) and Fasel (1979) both state that university administrators today have very little power to either establish or enforce programs of these types. Matters that used to be the domain of the instructional administrator are becoming matters of public policy (Fuller, 1976).

What kinds of programs are academic officers involved in developing? Several authors stress the need for improvement of curriculum, improvement of general education programs and/or institution of new programs. Heger (1975) listed several things that universities could do to improve their curriculum. One area that he mentioned was to provide more opportunities for upperclassmen to participate in ongoing research. He also suggested that universities could use upperclassmen and graduate students for tutorials and small group instruction. Melander & Pitts (1977) call for the development of academic programs which are learner centered, accessible in location and efficient in the use of resources. Romine (1974) states that it is necessary for administrators to stimulate and support activities which will improve learning skills of students and their ability to work independently.

One of the unresolved issues in most universities' curricula is the general education program and administrators should see that these courses are strengthened (Heger, 1975). Romine (1974) says that these courses need to be "credible, meaningful, relevant, and useful, as judged by students" (p. 53) in order to be part of an effective instructional climate. Romine also includes the development of performance-based courses as one step to a more effective instructional climate.

Diamond (1974) indicates that one revision needed in higher education is to "look for new programs with new constituencies" (p. 8). This is necessary because of the decline in enrollment and the increase in financial problems in colleges and universities that are beginning to take place. Administrators can best provide support for the development of new programs by giving encouragement and by authorizing release time for faculty to participate in course development (Vitrogan, 1975).

How can the academic officer provide help for those who are interested in instructional development? Heger (1975), Diamond (1974), and Romine (1974) all call for the formation of a campus center for instructional development. Diamond states that these units are needed because most faculty in the college or university do not have the expertise in curriculum development or change or in instructional development. These centers are often in an awkward position since faculty must approach the center and many are reluctant to do so. Center personnel must be extremely tactful when offering services to faculty and administrative support must be balanced so that faculty members do not feel that the center is being forced on them.

The application of these principles varies in real-life situations. But what really happens in the office of the Vice-President for Academic Affairs? In order to determine the actual role of an administrator charged with instructional development, Dr. Donald C. Roush, Executive Vice-President at New Mexico State University was interviewed.

Dr. Roush was asked what he felt his role has been in instructional development at NMSU. He replied that his most important influence on instructional development comes through leadership. He attempts to encourage deans and department heads to look ahead and revise curriculum based on changing conditions in higher education. He stated that he would like to see deans and department

heads spend more time looking at serving the unserved. In addition to this, Dr. Roush commented that, because of the decline in the number of students between 18 and 22 years old, new markets must be developed to bring in other students.

One program is being developed in the Department of Agriculture at NMSU to meet this need. In this program the curriculum will be designed around the needs of the potential students. The courses will be taught in an area of New Mexico which is not being served by NMSU and they will use some non-traditional, i.e. other than live lecture, delivery system. This concept was strongly supported by Dr. Roush when he asked the Graduate Council for their support for these delivery methods in order to reduce travel by faculty members to remote sites. Dr. Roush has also authorized release time for two faculty members to spend in course development in this program.

The Center for Educational Development and Evaluation which was established by Dr. Roush, has been instrumental in instructional development for the off-campus Agriculture program. During the development of the first course to be offered in this program, the instructor was introduced to audio cassette-workbook packages, video-tape presentations and two-way television lectures. The instructor in turn asked two of his colleagues to present two-way television lectures which introduced these professors to a new method of teaching.

Dr. Roush also provided the seed money to begin the off-campus programs. He has been in close contact with the Director of the Center for Educational Development and Evaluation and with the Dean of the College of Agriculture throughout the development of the initial course.

The second question that Dr. Roush was asked was to describe some curriculum changes for which he had been responsible and of which he was the most proud. He named the Crimson Scholars program, the cooperative doctorate in computer science, and the special help programs.

The Crimson Scholars program was designed to recognize outstanding undergraduate students at NMSU. This program is also used to recruit outstanding high school graduates. Although not directly a curriculum change, this program has contributed to curriculum changes at NMSU. Extra sections of honors programs have been opened for these students. Some departments encourage

the Scholars to participate in ongoing research and seminars.

The cooperative doctorate in computer science has been established with New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology and the University of New Mexico. The admission and graduate requirements will be the same and the same courses will be taught at all campuses. Students will select as an advisor the person in whose area of expertise they wish to work, regardless of the physical location of either the professor or the student. Computer link-ups between the three campuses will allow students to communicate with professors at other campuses and will provide better communications among the faculties of the three institutions.

Several special help programs are available at NMSU for those students who need them. The Drop-In-Lab and COPE, the College Opportunity Program for Enrichment, are designed to help students who need to improve their study and academic skills. Both try to help increase the student's basic skills in order to prepare the student to continue in college.

In response to the final question concerning changes he would like to see in the future, Dr. Roush replied that he would like to see the development of more performance-based courses and the revision of the general education requirements. He commented that many courses teach skills and could be effectively taught as a performance-based course. "The general education requirements should be studied and updated," Dr. Roush stated. Many of the general education requirements in the curriculum today are the same requirements established twenty years ago. Since the function of the general education requirement is to educate a person in today's world, courses should be teaching what today's people need to know today, Dr. Roush feels.

Dr. Roush has used his leadership abilities to encourage the establishment of programs at NMSU which are supported by the literature as being important in instructional development in universities.

The Elementary School
Principal and Leadership

Alicia M. Onsurez

Leadership is an elusive quality that has often defied definition. Some of those who have attempted say that leadership is "the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal, which they come to find desirable" (Tead, 1935, p.20). Tannenbaum (1961) defines it as "interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (p. 24). Still another (Saunders, 1965) states, "Leadership is not the power of one person to decide and control but is a set of functions which no one person alone can fulfill" (p. 95). These definitions specify communication, and the process of influencing others to meet a common goal. It seems to follow then, that the leader must possess qualities that promote communication and exert some degree of influence.

Several theories have been espoused throughout history that have attempted to identify qualities necessary for effective leaders. The review included:

1. Great Man Theory - This theory maintains that a leader is born and no amount of schooling or training will "make" a leader;
2. Charismatic Theory - The charismatic leader is one who is able to elicit an emotional commitment. However those advocating this theory have had great difficulty in identifying exactly what constitutes charisma;
3. Trait Theory - This was the first theory that attempted to isolate leadership qualities such as, enthusiasm, energy, loyalty, drive, etc.;
4. Situational Theory - This theory holds that being a leader is dependent upon the situation. That is, a person may be a leader in one situation and a follower in another;
5. Contingency Theory - Fiedler's contingency theory is quite complex in that performance is considered to be dependent

upon leader-member relations, task, structure, and position power;

6. Path-Goal Theory - This introduced subordinates as a variable for the first time. The leader was to establish a close working relationship with subordinates in order to achieve goals;
7. Life Cycle Theory - This theory predicts that the most appropriate leadership style comes from the maturity of the employees. It is closely akin to the laissez-faire style of leadership.

These theories have laid the foundation for the three major leadership styles; authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. There are characteristics common to all of these theories. Characteristics that are generally considered common to effective leaders according to George (1972) are:

1. A desire to excel - motivated, self-starter;
2. A sense of responsibility - accepts obligations;
3. Capacity for work - accepts the demands of leadership success--long hours and hard work;
4. A feel for good human relations - probably the single most important characteristic of a leader;
5. A high sense of integrity (p. 73).

With these leadership theories and styles in mind, each espousing its own unique blend of characteristics; it became a matter of increasing interest to the author as to whether instructional leaders adhere strictly to a particular theory and/or style or leadership.

In the Spring of 1980, in an Educational Management and Development class titled Educational Leadership and Supervision, Delbert Dyché administered a 100 item questionnaire to forty-five administrators and prospective administrators designed to measure perceptions and attitudes about leaders indicating

the responsibilities and personal characteristics important to survival in a leadership position. This 100 item questionnaire along with some of the characteristics advocated by the aforementioned theories, were used as a pool and ten items felt to be representative to the three main leadership styles were selected. The questionnaire was administered to ten elementary school principals. The purpose was two-fold in nature, first to determine whether instructional leaders support any particular theory or style in their practice; and second to develop a model of instructional leadership based on the responses. The elementary school principals were asked to complete the survey questionnaire and encouraged to make any comments felt to be pertinent to the survey statements or to their leadership style. The responses were as follows:

1. A leader should use threats and fear to get employees to perform.

Always Most of the time Sometimes-2 Never-8

Comments: "Sometimes the consequences are implied, for example if the school is to be evaluated by the State Department of Education and there are a few teachers who do not make an effort to comply or meet the necessary standards; their failure to comply will reflect on the entire school. No one wants to be singled out as being responsible for that." "Using the threat of losing your job comes only after repeated attempts have been made to work with the teacher."

2. Instructional leaders spend a great deal of time in helping and in satisfying members of the work group.

Always Most of the time-8 Sometimes-2 Never

Comments: "The teacher has to feel comfortable in the teaching environment." "This has a great deal to do with teacher morale; teachers have to know there is a support system."

3. An instructional leader should be a leader in name only; employees can "get the job done" on their own.

Always-1 Most of the time-9 Sometimes Never

Comments: "Objectives and goals of the district and school must be spelled out first." "I think teachers do get the job done on their own, but they need to know that there is someone in charge, someone who can advise, counsel, and provide encouragement and support when needed. That too is part of a leader's job."

4. An effective leader controls all coordination and interface in achieving the group's goal.

Always Most of the time Sometimes-9 Never-1

Comments: "When its mandated and we have no choice, then it's up to me to simply inform the teachers." "Group interaction is one of the keys of making teachers feel their input is important and needed."

5. It is important to solicit aid and advice from employees in solving problems.

Always Most of the time-10 Sometimes Never

Comments: "At times there are decisions to be made that do not directly influence the classroom teachers; but the rule is generally to make teachers an integral part of the decision-making process."

6. It is best to let a member of the group assume a leadership role in solving problems.

Always Most of the time Sometimes-10 Never

Comments: "I strongly believe in making use of all possible resources and at any given time there may be a person who has a stronger educational background or more experience in handling a problem facing us."

7. An instructional leader must "stay on top" of employees to maintain quality performance.

Always Most of the time Sometimes-1 Never-9

Comments: "A principal can't be in twenty classrooms every day and still carry out the administrative duties required." "You have to trust teachers to do their best, and most of them do."

8. Employees should be dependent on the instructional leader for decisions.

Always Most of the time Sometimes-5 Never-5

Comments: "Teachers should be informed enough to be able to make some decisions in the absence of the principal." "They (teachers) know enough about the everyday "goings-on" to make an intelligent decision." "The ultimate decision is up to the principal, but the process of reaching that decision is what's important."

9. Employees should be kept apprised of the group's situation and progress.

Always-10 Most of the time Sometimes Never

Comments: "I firmly believe teachers should know their status, whether professionally or in committee work."

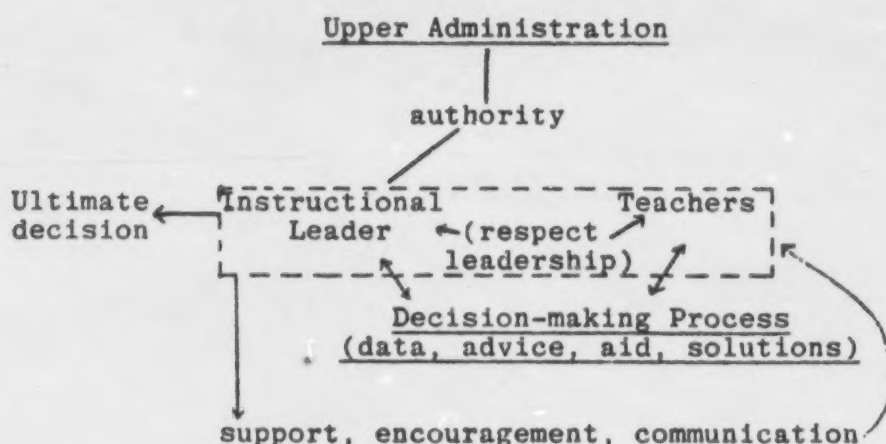
10. An instructional leader's authority is decreed by upper level administration.

Always Most of the time Sometimes-7 Never-3

Comments: "That's where the authority comes from and teachers are aware of it, but an instructional leader must prove his/her ability with the faculty." "Respect and the ability to lead can't be decreed, they have to be earned."

The principals interviewed felt that leadership style changed with the faculty they happen to be working with at the time. Their responses support the Situational Theory but also reflect aspects of the Contingency Theory, Path-Goal Theory, and the Life Cycle Theory. It appears to be the consensus among elementary principals that leadership is dynamic, flexible and situational. While they are adhering mostly to the democratic style of leadership, there is the incorporation of aspects of authoritarian and laissez-faire styles when deemed appropriate.

If a model were developed based on these responses it might be illustrated as such:



The model is reflective of (1) authority being decreed by upper administration; (2) respect and leadership ability must be earned; (3) the instructional leader and teachers are enclosed in a broken line to indicate the flexibility and dynamic nature of leadership; (4) the process of reaching a decision is two-way and is designed to provide the administrator with information necessary to reach a final decision; (5) lastly, the instructional leader must provide the support and encouragement needed to maintain a comfortable, working environment for teachers.

Vitrogan (1975) sums up the role of the successful academic administrator.

He is part gadfly, part father-confessor; he is a puzzle enthusiast, a paper grader, a coordinator, a tinkerer, a promoter and a co-worker. But perhaps his greatest contribution to a successful outcome is the support he gives faculty (p. 44).

References

- Alfonso, R. J., Firth G. R., & Neville, R. F.
Instructional supervision. Boston, Massachusetts:
Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1975.
- Alwood, M. S. Small-scale administrative change:
Resistance to the introduction of a high school
guidance program. Innovation in Education.
Miles, M. B. (Ed.). New York: Teachers College,
Columbia University, 1964.
- Blumberg, A. Supervisors and teachers. Berkeley,
CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974.
- Bolton, C. K. & Boyer, R. K. One-way and two-way
communication processes in the classroom.
Cincinnati, Ohio: University of Cincinnati,
1971.
- Boshear, W. C., & Albrecht, K. G. Understanding
people: Models and concepts. La Jolla, CA:
University Associates, Inc., 1977.
- Browne, C. G. & Neitzel, B. J. Communication,
supervision, and morale. Journal of Applied
Psychology, February 1952, 36(1), 86-91.
- Diamond, R. M. Academic redesign in higher education:
A matter of survival. Audiovisual Instruction,
1974, 19(10), 6-8.
- Fasel, G. The power myth. Change, 1979, 11(4),
8-9.
- Fisher, S. B., Jentz, B. C., & Cheever, D. S. Jr.
Starting a new job. Educational Leadership,
May 1980, 37(8), 632-635.
- Fox, R. S. & Lippitt, R. The innovation of classroom
mental health practices. Innovation in Education.
Miles, M. B. (Ed.). New York: Teachers College,
Columbia University, 1964.
- Fuller, B. A framework for academic planning. Journal
of Higher Education, 1976, 47, 65-77.
- George, C. What are the qualities of a good leader?
Educational Administration, 1979, 6.

- Glenny, L. A. The anonymous leaders of higher education. Journal of Higher Education, 1979, 50(4), 400-412.
- Griffiths, D. E. Administrative theory and change in organizations. Innovation in Education. Miles, M. B. (Ed.). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.
- Guilford, J. S. Temperment traits of executives and supervisors measured by the Guilford Personality Inventories. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1952, 36(4), 228-233.
- Haase, R. F. & DiMattia, D. J. Proxemic behavior: Counselor, administrator, and client preference for seating arrangement in dyadic interaction. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1970, 17(4), 319-325.
- Heger, H. H. The university curriculum: Some unresolved issues. Improving College and University Teaching, 1975, 23, 116-117.
- Heise, G. A. & Miller, G. A. Problem-solving by small groups using various communication nets. The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1951, 46(3), 327-335.
- Jones, R. E. The supervisor and the teacher: An effective model of communication. The Clearing House, 1980, 53(9), 433-437.
- Knox, W. G., Laird, W. K., & Vichert, N. N. Power or pawn: Leadership and the department head. Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, 1977.
- Leavitt, H. J. Some effects of certain communication patterns on group performance. The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1951, 46(1), 38-50.
- Lucio, W. H. & McNeil, J. D. Supervision: A synthesis of thought and action (2nd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969.
- McGrath, J. E. & Altman, I. Small group research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966.
- Mackenzie, G. N. Curricular change: Participants, power, and processes. Innovation in Education. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

- Maier, N. R. F., Hoffman, L. R., & Read, W. H. Superior-subordinate communication: The relative effectiveness of managers who held their subordinates' positions. Personnel Psychology, 1963, 16, 1-11.
- Marcus, P. M. Supervision and group process. Human Organization, 1961, 20(1), 15-19.
- Melander, E. R. & Pitts, E. I. Faculty and administrative roles in fostering curricular innovation. Journal of General Education, 1977, 29(2), 113-121.
- Mendenhall, D. R. Relationship of organizational structure and leadership behavior to staff satisfaction in ICE schools. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wisconsin (Madison), Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1977.
- Miles, M. B. Innovation in education: Some generalizations. Innovation in Education. Miles, M. B. (Ed.). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.
- New Mexico State University. Administrative Policies and Procedures Manual, 1980.
- Phares, E. J. & Lamiell, J. R. Internal-external control, interpersonal judgments of others in need, and attribution of responsibility. Journal of Personality, 1975, 43(1), 23-38.
- Read, W. H. Upward communication in industrial hierarchies. Human Relations, 1962, 15(1), 3-15.
- Research Action Brief Number 2. Managerial control: A middle way. Eugene, Oregon: Oregon University, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1978.
- Ricken, R. Teacher burnout: A failure of the supervising process. NASSP Bulletin, 1980, 64(434), 21-24.
- Rogers, E. M. Diffusion of innovations. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1962.
- Romine, S. Collegiate administration and the instructional environment. Contemporary Education, 1974, 46(1), 51-55.

- Roush, D. C. Personal Communication, September 18, 1980.
- Saunders, R. L., Phillips, R. C., & Johnson, H. J. A theory of educational leadership. Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966.
- Schutz, W. Leaders of schools. La Jolla, CA: University Associates, Inc., 1977.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. & Carver, F. D. The new school executive: A theory of administration, New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1980.
- Sibley, W. E. Social structures and planned change: A case study from the Philippines. Human Organization, 1960-1961, 19(4), 209-211.
- Stogdill, R. M. Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. The Journal of Psychology, 1948, 25, 35-71.
- Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I. R., & Massarin, F. Leadership and organization: A behavioral science approach. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961.
- Tead, O. The art of leadership. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935.
- Vitrogon, D. The role of the administrator in the development of a self-paced, personalized system of instruction. Educational Technology, 1975, 15(8), 44-45.
- Walker, D. E. The effective administrator. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1979.
- White, K. Personality characteristics of educational leaders: A comparison of administrators and researchers. The School Review, 1965, 73(3).

CRUCIAL ISSUES IN LEADERSHIP CHOICES

Harold Bergsma
Sandra Kelley

CRUCIAL ISSUES IN LEADERSHIP CHOICE

ABSTRACT

Many issues surround choices made by leaders in instruction and affect professional behavior. Four emergent issues are discussed: perplexing legal decisions, changing social expectations, expanding technology, and re-educating professionals.

The Issues of Technology
and Legal Decisions

Sandra Kelley

A major issue in educational leadership relates to the problem of making sound educational decisions amidst a rapidly developing technology and an expanding scientific base. Everyone presently living in America must be aware that our lives are permeated by changes brought about by the rapid pace of technological development. The effects of this growth on students and teachers is in constant evidence. Brembeck (1971) vividly illustrates this point by showing the changes in teachers' roles throughout history. He points out that, prior to the invention of writing, education involved only teacher, pupil, and knowledge. As late as 1900, only writing and printing had been added to the list. Today we find that teacher, pupil, knowledge, writing, printing, film, radio, television, and machines are all involved. Further additions to the list--such as computers, word processing machines, and video tape equipment--are being made continually.

Neagley, Evans, and Lynn (1969) tell us that it is predicted that by the turn of the century the sum total of man's knowledge will be doubling every ninety days or less. How does this rapid development of knowledge and technology affect education? In the past, teachers could be knowledgeable about all of the limited and then-known facts. "They could teach with the reasonable assurance that what they handed down to their students constituted what they needed to know during their life. The teacher was then the source of wisdom" (Brembeck, 1971, p. 369). Today's teachers cannot possibly know more than the tiniest portion of existing knowledge. The emphasis, therefore, is on the teacher's ability to motivate students to learn. Also, in the past, teachers were the only available source of information for students. Today's students have a vast variety of information sources. "Now they are dependent on the teacher for mastery and wise use of the means by which knowledge is acquired" (Brembeck, 1971, p. 369).

Technology and education are hardly strangers to each other. Brembeck (1971) reminds us that "In an historical sense the schools are pioneers in the use of educational technology, for the book and the blackboard are among the earliest of forms" (p. 373). However, each technological development forces educators to face choices which are often difficult and painful. Wagschal (1978) claims that "We are witnessing the demise of the written word as our primary means of storing and communicating information. By the time my four-year-old son reaches adulthood, there will be

hardly any compelling reason for him to be able to read, write, and do arithmetic" (p. 243). If he is correct, there will be an incredible number of changes affecting our educational system in the coming years. "Recognizing that learning depends on good communication, modern schools are using television, audio tapes, new kinds of projectors, teaching machines, and programmed textbooks to extend the work of the teacher" (Brembeck, 1971, p. 373). Freeman and Mulkowsky (1978) predict that robots and home-style computers will take over the majority of the education process in the future.

With many technological advances, teachers find it difficult to even know what questions to ask in order to make intelligent choices. For instance, teachers and parents have been concerned about the effects of the use of calculators on the learning of arithmetic. Several studies have indicated that learning is not hindered. But we may have been asking the wrong questions. "The widespread changes that will result from use of calculators will require everyone to have calculator skills. In the not-too-distant future, schools should be teaching the use of calculators simply because people will have to know how to use them" (Martino, 1980, p. 66).

The questions, then must not center on whether to allow the use of calculators in school. The important questions are what and how to teach students about calculators. The calculator has already changed the way many people work. It will change what and how people learn. It has changed the way many spend their leisure hours. It is a powerful, all-pervasive tool that will go everywhere with nearly everyone because it can do so much and because it can be held in the hand.

Technology forces the teacher to make choices about what to teach, which equipment to use to teach, and how to use that equipment to teach. Pula and Goff (1972) tell us about the effects of these forced choices on the teacher.

As new educational aids, devices, materials, and machines are introduced into the market (the term media is employed in this report to refer to any means of presenting stimuli), the choices to be made by teachers become even more difficult to make, due both to the increase in numbers of items from which to choose and to the introduction of new ideas about instruction which are represented in new types of aids, such as teaching machines and programmed instruction. Many

of these new ideas are difficult to understand, accept, and harmonize with earlier concepts about instruction which the teachers have acquired. Some of these new ideas are threatening and anxiety producing. Under the present system in which the teacher must make the choices, he finds himself not only confused by the mass of materials, but also lacking in dependable principles for decision-making. He also needs supplementary training in the processes by which new media are developed, improved, and evaluated in order to arrive at sound evaluation of their relevance for the age range and educational objectives for his group of students. Where anxieties are present, his continued education may need to include use of attitude-changing techniques as well as presentation of new information and concepts about learning and teaching. (p. 116-117)

Marks, Stoops, and King-Stoops (1978) point out that "It is safe to predict that advancing technology will affect supervision in a number of ways. Not only will the content of the curriculum be changed, but the purposes, program, techniques, procedures, and the entire scope of education also will be affected. Data-processing equipment already is a valuable aid in curriculum revision and in the learning process itself. In addition, the entire process of educational research can be speeded up by using such tools as minicomputers" (pp. 633-634).

New positions and roles will be created; new tasks will be assigned to existing supervisory positions. "A proliferation of roles and tasks will result in increased development of the school hierarchy. More supervisor specialists will be needed to manage and supervise departments and to coordinate, evaluate and direct programs for change and changing programs. A more complex school organization will cause supervision to become more specialized and specific, and, perhaps, more polarized as departments compete for status and funding" (Marks, et. al., 1978, p. 636).

Champion International Corporation pointed out in a recent advertisement in The Futurist (December, 1980, pp. 40-41) that "Technologies are expanding so quickly that it is next to impossible to predict which careers are going to be important--or even in existence--in 20 years. Then how can we prepare our children--and perhaps ourselves to make a living in this changing world?" The ad continues with a statement that educational supervisors should give a great deal of consideration.

New directions must be tested, new insights gained. The most talented teachers must be rewarded and pushed to the fore, while computers (as well as other technologies) are exploited to the limit to increase the efficiency of teaching, remembering that there is still no substitute for inspired teachers who believe in their students and have the capacity to arouse their wonder, demand their best and encourage their creativity.

But before anything can change, parents, educators, and legislators must first recognize the need to make education a lifelong process.

Legal Decisions

Changing laws and legal decisions are presenting the educational leader with many new and difficult decision-making choices. "Education has become a major focus of litigation in the United States today. Courts have been confronted with unprecedented questions regarding the basic educational, academic function itself" (Hollander, 1978, p. 2).

Until recently, it was comparatively simple for educational leaders to be aware of the important legal decisions regarding education. Hogan (1974) estimates that approximately 40,000 cases affecting the organization, administration, and programs of schools were decided by state, federal, and the Supreme Court of the United States between 1789 and 1971. However, more than 15,000 of these decisions were made after the end of World War II. Prior to 1946, there had been fewer than 100 federal court cases in any ten-year period. After that time, the number increased sharply to over 700 between 1956 and 1966. In the next five years (1966-71), the federal courts made 1200 decisions related to education.

The tremendous increase in the rate and number of court decisions makes it nearly impossible for an educator to be aware of all of those directly or indirectly affecting education. To further complicate the situation, "The modern trend in decisional law is toward 'education under the supervision of the courts'" (Hogan, 1974, p. 9). Courts today tend to decide more cases and to retain jurisdiction in those cases in order to assure that their mandates, orders, and decrees are carried out.

In 1968, the United States Supreme Court in Tinker vs. Des Moines Independent Community School District (393 U.S. 503) firmly declared that pupils have constitutional rights. In the words of the opinion: "It can hardly be argued that either students or teachers shed their constitutional rights to freedom of speech or expression at the school house gate." The Court went on to say that "they are possessed of fundamental rights which the state must respect, just as they themselves must respect their obligations to the state." This recognition of pupils' constitutional rights has precipitated a continuing surge of litigation in both state and federal courts (Delon, 1977, p. 37).

Tinker appears to have opened the floodgates for cases involving schools and individual rights. "Courts have been asked to review the constitutionality of school rules and practices pertaining to 'freedom of expression' (pure speech and symbolic expression) hair-styles and grooming, behavior and campus discipline, pregnancy, corporal punishment, admission and graduation requirements, suspension, expulsion and so forth" (Hogan, p. 79). Courts have also ruled on such diverse questions as minimum competency testing, paternity leave, student publications, self-defense, and the responsibility for reporting child abuse (Nolte, 1978). Supervisors are affected by decisions involving contracts, financial procedures, and discrimination.

Methods and regulations that have been used by educators for many years are now being ruled to be illegal. For instance, "School district use of test scores for pupil placement and teacher employment and promotion purposes, a long-standing educational practice, has been successfully challenged in the courts" (Hogan, p. 79). Furthermore, the burden of proof is shifting from the party attacking the regulation to the school authorities. When a First Amendment or a Fourteenth Amendment right is alleged to have been infringed, it must be proven that the "intrusion by the state is in furtherance of a legitimate state interest" (Hogan, 1974, p. 79).

Thus, choices regarding rules for students and student behavior must be made cautiously with an eye to the courts. Educators must be able to defend their actions with solid reasoning and data. These choices become very difficult since, as Strahan (1973) points out, "For both the school administrator and the courts it has been difficult to

exhibit certain kinds of behavior and when such behavior interferes with the rights of others to the degree that it becomes disruptive and should be regulated or suppressed" (p. 97).

When the choice to be made involves severe punishment for student behavior, the educator must now be certain that the student receives "due process." That this may be an expensive, time-consuming procedure further complicates the making of such choices. As the educational leader makes decisions, he must consider the rulings the courts have made over the past thirty years.

We're on the verge of the last and greatest frontier in civil and legal rights--the rights of children.

The challenge the courts face in these school cases involving student haircuts, pregnancy, testing and grading practices, record keeping and personal information dissemination, invasion of privacy, discrimination in interscholastic athletics, admission and graduation requirements, corporal punishment, etc. is to define the child's fundamental rights and interests in such a way that protects him against illegitimate abuse, but without undermining the efforts of school authorities in exercising the necessary control and discipline over the entire educational process. On the part of the courts, this involves a "balancing of the public interest" in education against the right of the child to be free from such abuse; on the part of the school authorities it involves, in part, forecasting student conduct that would interfere "materially and substantially" with the orderly operation and administration of the school. It is in the courtrooms and on the school campuses that these "balancing" and "forecasting" processes are taking place and where children's rights of the greatest value and number are still being worked out. (Hogan, 1974, p. 146)

Changing Expectations and Re-education of Professionals

Harold M. Bergsma, Ph.D.

Changing Expectations

The decade of the eighties portends many changes in education and society. The modifications in our ways of living which result from internal developments, or because of contacts between external forces and people, will accelerate (L. Spindler, 1959). Leaders in schools will be faced with the difficult tasks of keeping informed, keeping in tune with change and adapting in ways which preserve institutional and program values but allow for growth, expansion and improvement of the schools (E. E. Hagen, 1962). As the communication systems among cities, states and countries become more efficient and bring world realities to school districts, choices will become more difficult and more frequent (Rogers, 1971). The study of the effects of change and reactions to such, particularly as they emanate from a dominant group, are often disruptive and stressful upon those who are being asked to change. Anthropologists refer to these attempts at change as "revitalization movements" which are defined as "...deliberated, organized, conscious efforts by members of the society to construct a more satisfying and meaningful culture" (C. M. Woods, 1975, p. 37). A revitalization movement has again begun in many American schools. We are all painfully aware that "Johnny can't read" and "Help! Teachers can't teach!" (Time, p. 54). The movement is so strong that leaders in education are speaking for dramatic change. Professor J. Myron Atkin, Dean of Stanford University's School of Education, is quoted by Time as saying, "For the first time, it is conceivable to envision the dismantling of universal, public, compulsory education as it has been pioneered in America" (p. 54).

Critical to the concept of change, therefore, is the idea that change will involve choice among alternatives in education. This issue is made even more intense because leaders, professionals in instruction in public schools, are themselves in a quandary as to how to proceed. To act in ways which would not be in line with the public's perception of need creates realistic political problems for educators

who serve the public and rely on them for their very existence through public funds. To not change, however, may have even more dire consequences for the system.

Alternatives in Education spoke to the need for choice and its relationship to power in educational institutions. Teachers and students have limited options for choice. The questions this publication poses, however, are who chooses? are there too many options for choice? The answers lay in a definition of choices by those in the school systems based on democratic concepts of consensus: consensus of the taxpayer. In other words, the politics of the participatory decision-making process becomes the fulcrum for balance for choices. "The new era of public concern and awareness being brought about by optional alternative public schools, offers educators a new challenge to assume a major leadership role" (Smith, 1976, p. 131).

One very real alternative being suggested in this study is the revitalization of schools as we know them by means of informed and responsible leaders in education. The credo of personal individualism extant in our society may have served the public well in the creation of schools and educational systems which functioned to support the society and its viability during post-colonial and westward expansion eras. Today, the hope for direction lies in the ability of the leadership of the profession to monitor its ranks and allow only the able and talented to become part of the group, and to provide the know-how and advice about how to reconstruct and change in a way the public will understand and buy.

The recent revival of basic skills alluded to in the opening paragraphs of this section, may have been too long in arriving; none the less, it is a refreshing "revitalization movement" in the sense that educators and the general public have raised a unified cry, "Let's choose for quality." If not quality, let us at least insure that our children receive the basics. There is no greater, more researched, better funded educational system in the history of the world than exists in this country. The potential for change, for choice is here.

Choices are being made by some leaders. Gordon Cawelti, in a speech presented at New Mexico State University in the Fall of 1980, reviewed for the College of Education audience his excellent summary from

research concerning the characteristics of effective schools and effective educational leadership as defined by student achievement. The points he made are worth reviewing.

1. Schools are effective places, that is achievement in learning is improved, when teachers hold high expectations for schools and students.
2. Students do better, learn more, and learn more effectively when their progress is frequently monitored.
3. Students learn more effectively when the classroom climate is characterized by being "business-like" and the leadership in the classroom helps student activity to be focused and directed toward achievement.
4. Students learn more effectively when the materials used in class are of a level of difficulty related to student development and need.
5. The effective educational leader is engaged with on-task activities with her students and these are tied realistically to a time frame which students understand.
6. Effective teachers routinize their classroom management skills. This helps to assure adequate time on task.
7. Effective schools are places where students have opportunities to learn to use materials which are criterion referenced.
8. Effective schools are places where leadership exists to support the improvement of reading and mathematics instruction (and other hard knowledge).

Happily, Cawelti's listing ends in a note dealing with content and program input, crucial concepts among the choices leaders can make. There has been a heavy emphasis on process, and choices made for process are strongly reinforced by accrediting agencies of secondary schools and colleges (Tom, 1980).

Colleges and universities echo the concern for improved achievement. These social realities may provide impetus for new kinds of choices made by leaders in education. There seems to be little refutation for the long known idea that one must know something in order to help others learn it.

Re-education of Professionals

A critical issue in leadership in the eighties, then appears to be how to help professionals to not just teach, but to lead, and lead with a sense of power and purpose. Educators today have at their command a vast array of literature and research reports, unparalleled in all of history. We are a studied educational enterprise! Yet the application of all this information by educational leaders in positions of power is minimal. "Many teacher-educators, in fact, believe that the primary problem is the dissemination of knowledge, not discovery" (Tom, 1930, p. 26). Tom continues, "What is lacking, is adequate provision for organizing and institutionalizing that knowledge and (for) its effective transmission to practitioners." Smith (1980) argues that teachers and those in leadership positions are uninformed about research pertaining to teaching. Howsam (1976) states that the leaders in education may in fact resist the application of the vast research base available for informed choices in education. Too many teachers are trained practitioners but not well-informed educators. Too much vital information simply remains unused. The storehouses continue to grow and swell, and this storage process is heavily subsidized by tax dollars in the form of grants to increase "the body of knowledge."

A most crucial issue, then may be how to begin the process of change among those professional school leaders who are well versed in process and experts in setting the learning stage for students, but whose primary concerns may not be content in-put, content evaluation, and content mastery by students. Margie Kitano (1981), in writing about leadership training in a monograph A Re-examination of Educational Issues, discusses the issue of whether "...curriculum emphasis on traditional disciplines or areas of current interest would prepare future leaders for dealing with contemporary problems" (p. 16). She suggests that:

They require a curriculum that imparts habits of humane, logical and critical

thinking that can be applied to any forthcoming issue. Educators developing curricula for leadership training might consider building strong foundations in (a) mathematics and science for systematic and logical thought and (b) history, anthropology, literature, and the arts for a knowledge of cultural heritage and the meaning of humanity and its expression. (p. 16)

The re-education of professionals in the field will be a difficult task primarily because of "granny clauses" inherent in certification, because of the political reality of the clout enjoyed by a huge army of classroom teachers tied to strong and effective professional unions, and because of public apathy regarding the choice of responsible parties to risk change.

The education of teachers-to-be presents one with a means of creating change, even if that be slow, by the production of professionals who have had to work hard to master content; who have proven and tested literacy and numeracy skills; who are adept in helping others understand new content; and who, to reiterate Cawelti's eight points, have process skills of monitoring, being business-like, and keeping their students on-task. Additionally, the problem of educating for a sense of moral balance and clarifying our professional values (Michalak, 1970) within a dynamically developing technological society remains a critical and perplexing issue.

Educational leadership, therefore, will of necessity eclipse the mere supervision of clinical experiences of student teachers. It will deal with the difficult task of restructuring the entire teacher preparation process by means of a more careful selection of candidates. It will deal with informing publics of the need for teachers to demonstrate specific competence in subject matter. Lastly, it will deal with helping teachers to be more assertive for change and for conquest of the plaguing problems in American education. A tall order!

Educators must develop an attitude of being efficacious in regard to their profession. Perhaps for too long we have been depressed (or is it oppressed?) by the system itself which structures apathy and limits participation.

Paulo Freire (1965) has, in Pedagogy of the Oppressed, made a statement with virulent possibility.

The oppressed, having internalized the image of the oppressor and adopted his guidelines, are fearful of freedom. Freedom would require them to eject this image and replace it with autonomy and responsibility. Freedom is acquired by conquest, not by gift. It must be pursued constantly and responsibly. Freedom is not an ideal located outside of man; nor is it an idea which becomes myth. It is rather the indispensable condition for the quest for human completion.

Leadership will require individuals to seek improvement, to take personal responsibility for teaching and learning, to make more informed choices, and to take more assertive action for excellence. Certainly, shared decision-making will be the mode for most and include, according to Jo Ann Mazzarella in Leadership Effectiveness (1979), consensus, command, consultation, and convenience. Add to this that elusive attribute called "leadership style," and a beginning may have been made, particularly if the style embodies expert knowledge and a belief that the future of education is really our choice. The images are apparent, it is now the time for the man to be over the method.

References

- Brembeck, C. S. Social foundations of education: Environmental influences in teaching and learning. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1971.
- Delon, F. G. Administrators and the courts: Update 1977. Educational Research Service Monograph. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service, Inc., 1977.
- Freeman, M. & Mulkowsky, G. P. Advanced interactive technology: Robots in the home and the classroom. The Futurist, December 1978, 356-361.
- Friere, P. Pedagogy of the oppressed. New York: Seabury Press, 1968.
- Hagan, E. E. On the theory of social change: How economic growth begins. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1962.
- Help! Teachers can't teach! Time, June 16, 1980, 54-59.
- Hogan, J. C. The schools, the courts, and the public interest. Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Company, 1974.
- Hollander, P. A. & J. D. Legal handbook for educators. Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1978.
- Howsam, R. B. The workplace: Does it hamper professionalization of pedagogy? Phi Delta Kappan, October 1980, 62, 93-96.
- Kitano, M. A re-examination of educational issues, 1981. (Monograph). New Mexico State University, Dialogue Series.
- Marks, J. R., Stoops, E., & King-Stoops, J. Handbook of educational supervision: A guide for the practitioner. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1978.
- Martinao, J. P. A revolution in your hand: Past is only prologue for the hand-held calculator. The Futurist, December 1980, p. 64-66.
- Mazzarella, J. A. Leadership effectiveness. Association of California School Administrators, 1979.

Michalak, D. A. The clarification of values. Improving College and University Teaching, 1970, 18, 100-101.

Neagley, R. L., Evans, N. D., & Lynn, C. A., Jr. The school administrator and learning resources: A handbook for effective action. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1969.

Nolte, M. C. How to survive in teaching: The legal dimension. Chicago: Teach 'em, Inc., 1978.

Pula, F. J. & Goff, R. J. Technology in education: Challenge and change. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, Publishing Company, 1972.

Rogers, E. M. with Shoemaker, F. F. Communication of innovation: A cross-cultural approach. New York: The Free Press, 1971.

Smith, B. O. Pedagogical education: How about reform? Phi Delta Kappan, October 1980, 62, 87-91.

Smith, V., Barr, R., & Burke, D. Alternatives in Education. Phi Delta Kappa, 1976.

Spindler, L. S. & G. D. Culture change. In Biennial Review of Anthropology, B. J. Siegel (Ed.). Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1959.

Strahan, R. D. The courts and the schools. Lincoln, Nebr.: Professional Educators Publications, Inc., 1973.

Tom, A. R. NCATE standards and program quality: You can't get there from here. Phi Delta Kappan, October 1980, 62, 113-119.

Wagschal, P. H. Illiterates with doctorates: The future of education in an electronic age. The Futurist, August 1978, p. 243-244.

Woods, C. M. Culture change. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company Publishers, 1975.

Index

	Pages
Adorno, T. W., et al.....	26, 27
Albrecht, K. G.....	47, 49
Alfonso, R. J.....	4, 5, 9, 11, 13, 45, 50
Altman, I.....	50
Alwood, M. S.....	52
Atkin, J. M.....	76
Bennett, R. M.....	32
Bergsma, H.....	76
Bevis, E.....	30
Blake, R. R.....	29, 31
Blanchard, K. H.....	31
Blumberg, A.....	51
Bolton, C. K.....	50
Bosher, W. C.....	47, 49
Boyer, R. K.....	50
Brembeck, C. S.....	70, 71
Browne, C. J.....	47
Brubacher, J. S.....	5, 6, 7
Burton, W. H.....	10, 11
Butts, F. R.....	6
Caldwell, W. E.....	29
Carter, K.....	34
Cawelti, G.....	33, 77, 78, 80
Champion International Corporation.....	72
Chemers, M. M.....	30
Clear, D. K.....	32
Culbertson, J., et al.....	14, 16, 17
Cremin, L. A.....	5
Dacus, J.....	54
Delon, F. G.....	74
Dewey, J.....	6, 34
Diamond, R. M.....	56
Dillehay, R. C.....	27
DiMattia, D. J.....	49
Divincenti, M.....	31
Douglass, L.....	23
Dropkin, S.....	5
Drucker, P. I.....	30
Dull, L. W.....	4, 6
Dyche, D.....	60
Dyer, W. G.....	18
Erickson, K. A.....	28
Evans, N. D.....	70
Fasel, G.....	55
Fiedler, F. E.....	30, 31
Fisher, S. B., et al.....	52
Fox, R. S.....	52

	Pages
Freeman, M.....	71
Freire, P.....	80
Fuller, B.....	55
<u>Futurist, The</u>	72
Gellerman, S. W.....	33
George, C.....	60
Glenny, L. A.....	55
Goff, R. J.....	71
Goodman, J.....	25
Gordon, T.....	12
Griffiths, D. E.....	52
Guilford, J. S.....	50
Haase, R. F.....	49
Hagen, E. E.....	76
Haiman, F. S.....	11, 12
Hartmann, C. L.....	36
<u>Harvard Business Review</u>	15
Heger, H. H.....	55, 56
Heise, G. A.....	50
Hersey, P.....	31
Hogan, J. C.....	73, 74, 75
Hollander, P. A. & J. D.....	72
Horney, H. H.....	35
Howsam, R. B.....	79
Joy, W. K.....	32
Jones, R. E.....	48
Katz, M. B.....	5, 6, 9, 10, 11
Kelley, S.....	70
Kitano, M.....	79, 80
King-Stoops, J.....	72
Kline, T.....	45
Knox, W. G., et al.....	48
Kruz, D. W.....	32
Kusht, J. D.....	27
Lamiell, J. R.....	51
Leavitt, H. J.....	50
Level, D. A.....	14
Levey, S.....	23
Lippitt, R.....	52
Loomba, N. P.....	23
Lucio, W. H.....	47
Lumley, D. D.....	36
Lynn, C. A.....	70
McGrath, J. F.....	50
McNeil, J. D.....	47
Maccoby, M.....	33
Maier, N. R. F., et al.....	49
Mackenzie, G. W.....	52
Mandelbaum, S. J.....	31
Marcus, P. M.....	51
Marriner, A.....	9
Marks, J. R.....	72

	Pages
Martinao, J. P.....	71
Massie, J.....	23
Mazzarella, J. A.....	81
Nelander, E. R.....	54, 55
Mendenhall, D. R.....	51
Michalak, D. A.....	80
Miles, M. B.....	48
Miles, R. E.....	15, 16
Miller, G. A.....	50
Millet, E. T.....	31
Morris, J. E.....	29, 32
Mouton, J. S.....	29, 31
Mulkowsky, G. P.....	70
Neagley, R. L.....	70
Neitzel, B. J.....	47
Nolte, M. C.....	74
Onsurez, A.....	59
Peters, R.....	25, 26
Phares, E. J.....	51
Pitts, E. I.....	54, 55
Polk, M.....	30
Prewitt, S. A.....	29
Pula, F. J.....	71
Read, W. H.....	49
Rich, J. M.....	36
Ricken, R.....	49
Rogers, E. M.....	51, 76
Romine, S.....	54, 55, 56
Roush, D.....	56, 57, 58
Rugg, H.....	35
Saunders, R. L.....	59
Scimecca, J. A.....	18
Seager, R. C.....	32
Sergiovani, T. J.....	11, 16, 18
Sexton, N. J.....	28
Sherman, R. R.....	35
Sibley, W. E.....	51
Simon, H. A.....	32
Smith, B. O.....	79
Smith, V.....	77
Spieser, L. B.....	37
Spindler, L. S. & G. D.....	76
Starrett, R. J.....	11, 16
Steffel, M.....	9, 14
Stevens, B. J.....	30
Stogdill, R.....	3, 12, 50
Stoops, E.....	72
Strahan, R. D.....	74
Tannenbaum, R.....	59
Tead, O.....	59
Time.....	76
Tom, A. R.....	48, 79

	Pages
Valdez, T.....	4
Vitrogan, D.....	56, 64
Wagschal, P. H.....	70
Walker, D. F.....	54
Webster, D.....	3, 25
Weed, S. E., et al.....	31
West, R. P.....	31
White, K.....	50
Whittier, T.....	38
Wilhelms, F. T.....	16, 17
Wiles, K.....	11, 15
Wolfe, D. P.....	35
Woods, C. M.....	76